

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

JUNE, 1934

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The Yacht Race
from an Etching
by J. H. Dowd

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

For the Advancement of Nursery—Kindergarten—Primary Education

Vol. X

JUNE, 1934

No. 9

The Development of Learning in Relation to International Mindedness

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TODAY children, no longer regarded as miniature adults completed by nature, are permitted the privilege of learning in every field of activity. This changed point of view implies, however, that responsibility rests upon the older generation to provide suitable opportunities for learning.

Since attitudes, whether desirable or undesirable, are learned,—there is an opportunity to further or to hinder their development through the experiences of the child, by indirect teaching of adults and other children, and also by way of direct teaching. This particular discussion limits itself to the consideration of means for encouraging the development of that attitude toward other nations and other races, called international-mindedness.

This may be defined as "a consciousness of the solidarity and interdependence of mankind as a whole and a loyalty thereto" coupled with "the desire to perpetuate and to increase this group character." "International-mindedness is really sympathy, understanding and tolerance for other peoples."

Such attitudes may seem far beyond the

capacity of the little child, immersed as he is in family life. Indeed this is true and only through the development of learning do larger, more inclusive attitudes develop. Yet it must be remembered that international-mindedness is in reality an extension of the consideration and mutual helpfulness that mark home life.

Gradually the circle of a child's interest and loyalty widens. At first his family is his world. Then school, neighborhood, community and nation, enter. As he develops in international-mindedness, he includes the world in his thinking.

Historically the family group extended itself to the clan and the clan to the nation. Finally groups of nations acted together for mutual benefit. Pre-eminence has largely depended upon economic power. In the family, the clan and the nation, there is a single head to whom all individuals look. The extension of organizations to groups of nations meets with the difficulty that there are many heads and consequently the interests of each group are less easily reconciled with those of other groups. Since the ends and desires of different members inevitably clash, provision must be made by govern-

ment and law for the adjudication of those conflicting wishes and aims and for the development of a "comity of nations."

Paralleling this governmental coördination, there must be a unifying of the interests of the individuals who make up the co-operating nations. While there are, of course, great and fundamental differences between nations, there are also important and fundamental likenesses. There exists also, according to Stratton, the feeling of difference, i.e., antipathy; as he says, "Many things are important if true,—important even though untrue, if many persons hold them true and act upon them."

It would seem then, that the business of education is to make sure that the fundamental assumptions with regard to races and nations are sound, so that the individual child will be able to avoid the development of racial prejudices and national antipathies.

Racial prejudice is really a protective response, an emotional guardedness, which finds its expression in attitudes of antagonism. Since, as William James said, we believe that with which we fill our minds, propaganda is effective.

"To wait until an attitude is fully grown would seem the sheerest folly," says Kelley. To guide the development of attitudes, however, is exceedingly difficult. We do not know the actual effect upon the child of direct teaching, of chance experiences, of the continuing behavior of the adults who surround him. We do not know how the child interprets what he hears and sees and feels. Nor can we foresee the world in which he will practice what he has learned.

Each generation builds for itself a new land and the aim of teaching is the development of ability to live in this new world,—of capacity to modify opinions and practices in accord with new evidence, to accept and act upon conclusions based upon further evidence.

The ever recurring difficulty of teaching lies in the fact that the child will practice in new situations, in a changing world which invalidates old information and sets new goals. The goal achieved by one generation

becomes the starting point for the next,—and that in turn sets its course toward new achievements. Teaching therefore becomes impossible. All that can be done is to present opportunities for learning.

The child interprets teaching in his own terms. "Cavalcade" for the younger generation was without that intense emotional effect due to the reliving and reviewing of large portions of one's own experience. It is a truism that education must begin with what the child understands.

His understanding, however, is not identical with his vocabulary. To be able to attach a name to an event often gives a feeling of completeness or comprehension which is fallacious. The "High Wind in Jamaica" vividly expresses the intensification of an experience which comes through the naming of that experience. A terrible hurricane which no one calls by its proper name is taken in the day's stride. But a minor earthquake becomes an event of great importance because the word "earthquake" is well known and has its own sinister connotations.

The opportunity for learning must necessarily be adapted to the child's own capacities and interests. Too great a degree of difference results in embarrassment or in a feeling of uncertainty with a consequent effort to regain the balance of superiority through belittling or scoffing at the unfamiliar.

The child takes for granted the things he has always known and regards them as the standard of acceptability. That feeling of friendliness toward negro children which is the "outgrowth of a normal, friendly contact" is destroyed as the child's attention is directed to differences in color and social status. The attitude of the group is accepted instead. Nor is it easy, as personal relationships extend, to maintain a respect for mutual equality.

A three-year-old girl asked to go with her mother to a committee meeting. Her mother replied, "I don't think you would be interested."

"All talk?"

"Yes, and you enjoy song and dance, as in 'Aladdin'."

"No," replied the child, "I don't like strange creatures. I go to angel plays. Angels aren't strange."

Just as whatever seems familiar is taken for granted, so whatever is unfamiliar is apt to be suspected. Charles Lamb's reason for disliking a man, that "he did not know him," is often a working rule of conduct, none the less effective that it is unexpressed.

The assumption is made that the peoples of the earth are so different that they cannot understand one another. Stratton says, however, that "if we look deeper than skin into the qualities of the mind, some believe we shall find the races essentially alike, and that these traits of human nature, variously modified by experience and training are doubtless of different strength and proportion in different races; but the evidence is clear that the fundamental human powers are in no one race alone." He goes on to say that the contempt for those not of their own blood, which characterizes primitive peoples, often characterizes the child's attitude to a stranger. "To think that these antipathies are due wholly to strangeness and that they will disappear by mere acquaintance, even acquaintance long, continued, is to build on sand." Undesirable attitudes must be replaced by new ones; this replacement comes through learning.

While the adult may be attracted by dissimilarity and difference, since he has already established a foundation of likenesses, the child is apt to be distressed by too great differences. He accepts a detail as the whole. The results of Lasker's study of the "Development of Racial Attitudes" indicate quite clearly that the child absorbs the attitudes of those around him, but that he fails to perceive oftentimes the qualities which to the adult are most significant. For example, little children, negro and white, play together in perfect equality. Yet cumulative experience brings about a change in the attitude of each. Lasker goes on to say that even those who in the abstract believe in justice and equality between different racial groups, through their

actions, deny this belief. Such actual denial is the most potent form of teaching.

The studies made by the Payne Foundation of the effect of moving pictures on the development of racial attitudes indicate that the memories of children are far more extensive than adults have supposed. They remember "things in every category, good and bad, accurate and misinforming, with the indiscriminate fidelity of little cameras."

Thurston discovered that children in a mid-western community who were unfamiliar with negroes showed practically no race prejudice. Yet after seeing the film, "The Birth of a Nation," their race prejudice grew like a weed. Five months later, without a second showing of the film, more than 62 per cent of the prejudice remained and after eight months it was still markedly present.

A group of such school children completely changed their attitudes toward the German people after seeing the film, "Four Sons," which is anti-war and friendly to them. In another town, a Chinese film called "Son of the Gods" had a similar effect. The study goes on to show that there is a cumulative effect due to seeing a number of films on similar lines.

Children's reactions are not always the ones planned for nor do they always give the responses expected by adults. Since it is impossible to know exactly how the child will interpret what he sees, hears and experiences, we must avoid holding the foreigner up to ridicule on account of his differences. We must take every opportunity to insure understanding of these differences and the development of emotions, desires and sentiments which will reinforce intellectual understanding.

The ideals of peace and of a comity of nations are abstract and must be supported by force of public opinion. This can be developed only by making use of every means for increasing knowledge, mutual understanding, and most of all, friendly emotional attitudes.

Conference of the World Federation of Educational Associations, Dublin, Ireland, 1933

GRACE OWEN,
Manchester, England

THE SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE NURSERY SCHOOL

A WORLD Federation of Educational Associations tends to bring out not only the common purposes of the nations in regard to the fulfilment of the promise of childhood, but also the great common characteristics of childhood all over the world, the common path of development trodden by all children, the stages in that development which can be traced in all, and the common needs of all—needs which our various associations exist to meet.

The pre-school period is the period as to which we have perhaps most of all in common in all countries, and thus the nursery school, which as an institution expresses our present practical knowledge of that period, represents a move that is essentially a world movement. We have yet to see how powerful a movement, fraught with what great influence on the future of mankind, it may become. So far the different aspects of the nursery school movement have received varying emphasis in different countries. Our inclusive experience has given us, for example, the detailed study of individual development in Geneva and the United States, the wonderful buildings and equipment of Vienna, the general social redemption of child life and family life effected by the nursery schools of Great Britain in the areas where they have been established.

There is ample evidence of increasing public concern for the provision of proper nurture for the pre-school child in many countries of the world both west and east; we know that the movement is spreading in China and Japan. Figures are misleading because the term "Pre-school" is used to cover a different period in different countries. In England our nursery schools are

under the Medical Department of the Board of Education and Local Authority, and admit children between two and five years, when they must enter school. In other countries the school entrance age is six or seven, but the provision for the pre-school years in some form or other is very general. Thus we are told for instance that there are 3,220 public nursery schools in France and 5,700 nursery classes, and that in Russia there are 400,000 children in nursery schools. Access to more complete and accurate information would be very valuable.

Of the social significance of the nursery school as it is conceived and experienced in other countries, I will leave it to others better qualified, to speak. In my own brief remarks I will not apologize for dealing with it as our own experience in England has led us to see its importance, not only for our own people but for all peoples.

Our experience of a nursery school movement in England has sprung from the need of grappling with adverse social conditions but from the beginning, the movement in Great Britain has been inspired at once by a vision of the possibilities of the development of the individual child, and of a new transformed social life for the community through this. The work of the nursery school movement in England has never been merely the rescue of the individual child, nor merely the amelioration of social conditions, nor merely the effort to secure physical well-being for the poverty-stricken though it is true that it has worked chiefly in company with poverty and pain. There was always been in the English movement the sense of national responsibility, the desire not merely to cure ill mental or physi-

cal in groups of individual children but to realize, to make actual, the beauty and promise of childhood for the nation, to raise the standard of home life, to see undreamed of possibilities accomplished in the citizenship of the future as the result of unmarred development in the early years.

While it is only in recent years that scientific research has been an important feature of the English movement, the results of which have yet to become fully effective in the daily practise of the nursery school. Nevertheless, as the outcome of the conception of the function of the nursery school in the minds of the pioneers, there has been a steady emphasis on the wholeness of the child, body, mind and spirit.

Pitfalls in every side have not been entirely avoided, but on the whole we have escaped a narrowing of the movement to one for the improvement of the physical health alone, as some would have it, or to one chiefly for the relief of parental difficulties, or again to one by which the young child's intellectual impulses and suggestibility shall be exploited on the interests of the primary school teacher.

The very nature of the origin of the nursery school movement in England has involved a special realization of its social significance from several points of view.

What was, I suppose, our first nursery school was carried on from 1873-80 by the late Sir William Mather in Salford, Manchester, as an effort to meet the crying needs of little children in a particular district where poverty, ignorance, crowding and vice were the rule. As an enlightened student of education as well as a large-hearted business man and citizen, Sir William Mather chose this particular method of attacking social evils in an almost hopeless environment as fundamental and as bringing immediate and yet far-reaching results, as affecting not only the individual child but the families concerned, and the neighborhood in which they lived.

This type of work was multiplied at the beginning of the 20th Century, though usually on a much smaller scale, through the spread in England and Scotland and of the

free kindergartens. These were the direct result of the free kindergarten movement in America. As time went on these free kindergartens found it necessary to give increasing attention to questions of bodily nurture, and became what we now call nursery schools. These philanthropic educational efforts began the nursery school movement in England and continue with help of Government Grants to account for nearly half the nursery schools in Great Britain today.

The institution of Medical Inspection of School Children by Act of Parliament in 1906 brought out the magnitude of the problem of physical deterioration between birth and the age of five years from a national point of view. During the years following 1906 it was revealed that while 80 per cent of the babies born were healthy, at least a third and more—30-40 per cent were, by the age of school entrance at five suffering from physical defects mostly preventable, while the incidence of mortality was shown to be enormously greater during the years between one and five than during any later period.

It took little imagination and reflection to make apparent the deplorable waste of life, the undermining of physical vigor, resistance to disease and mental capacity for the whole of life to which these figures pointed, the futility of pouring out money on medical treatment during school years and later life for physical defects which could have been prevented or eliminated with ease if discovered during the first few years of life, was already clear to those who took part in more than one official enquiry into the condition of the people at the time, as well as to the more thoughtful general public. Thus, for example, the poor condition of Army recruits had led in 1904 to a Commission of Enquiry into the possibility of general physical deterioration of the people. The verdict of this report was that the cases of the high percentage of physical unfitness amongst the Army recruits was to be found in bad conditions and wrong management in early childhood.

From that time to this, a period of nearly

30 years, the significance of the pre-school period in relation to healthy manhood and womanhood has been slowly permeating the public mind. Practical measures taken during the first eighteen years of the 20th century in England included government financial assistance towards schools for mothers which became the Infant Welfare centers of today, day nurseries, and the beginning of the system of health visiting.

The few nursery schools staffed by kindergarten teachers and social workers, and differing from these other agencies in that they cared for the whole child, not only his physical health, received no financial assistance from the Government until 1918, but as far back as 1908 the establishment of nursery schools was recommended to the Board of Education by its consulting committee as the method by which the State could best solve the problem of securing for the young child the right physical, mental and social conditions, now seem to be the essential foundation of all material well-being.

Amongst the few nursery schools of this period, Miss Margaret McMillan's world famous Open-air Nursery School Centre in Deptford opened in 1913, was of outstanding importance. It proved triumphantly the social significance of the nursery school. The striking results accomplished in Deptford under handicaps of every kind, by means of making provision in simplest form, for the great elementary needs of early human development, in the midst of a district where overcrowding, poverty and ignorance was ruining the people by maiming and destroying its childhood, cried aloud to all observers that the same results could be secured to the whole nation in the same way, by planting nursery schools all over the country, beginning with the congested areas—were only the public will sufficiently strong.

It was largely through the influence of Margaret McMillan's life and work that the Education Acts of England, Scotland and Ireland of 1918 included a clause permitting the expenditure of public money by Local Authorities aided by the National Ex-

chequer to establish nursery schools, and this great step makes the completion of a true foundation of national well-being possible, and we hope certain in the future.

There are in Great Britain as yet less than 80 State-aided nursery schools providing for less than 6,000 children, instead of for the 2 million for whom we should aim to provide in England alone. Public opinion has not so far been sufficiently strong nor well informed in this matter to insure the carrying on of its will expressed in the Education Acts of 1918—in the face of apathy or opposition. The work of strengthening and informing public opinion however in which the Nursery School Association of Great Britain has played its part has gone on with increasing success during the last ten years, until now it is possible to note that even during a period of such severe financial restriction as the present—when local authorities are being denied the Government Grants which would enable them to open nursery schools, the urge towards their provision cannot be stopped. The need for them is admittedly more urgent than even at the present time. The dire effects of unemployment on the standards of home life, the depressing atmosphere, the scarcity of food, the overcrowding, are inevitably preventing thousands of little children from receiving the minimum conditions of health and happiness, and are making for the generation now under five years of age a harvest of evil in the future far worse than the misery and discomfort of the present. No longer can these obvious facts be ignored by any thoughtful citizen.

Accordingly the *Save the Children Organization*, well known for its activities throughout Europe, coöperating with the National Council of Social Service and helped by the voluntary service of unemployed men and women, is opening ten Emergency Open-air Nurseries each to accommodate 40 young children under five years of age, under a trained nursery school teacher, assisted by voluntary workers, in different parts of the country where conditions most urgently call for aid. Lincoln led the way last year to this method of par-

tially meeting the situation. A few weeks ago Lady Astor and Mrs. Wintringham opened an Emergency Open-air Nursery at Middlesborough, and others are well on their way. By this means an effort is being made to save at least some of our children passing through the pre-school period from the worst effects of the depressing and miserable home conditions caused by unemployment and overcrowding. Although the utmost efforts of philanthropic social organizations can in such a way do no more than touch the fringe of the problem of need, these emergency open-air nurseries are not only giving a better start in life than would otherwise be possible to the particular group of little children for which each is responsible—which is in itself abundantly worth while—but are demonstrating on a small scale the full coöperation of the social whole in the care of the young child which must be won in the future. In the case of each emergency nursery, those who have such to give are helping with their money, their time, and their powers of organization. These provide the material for building and the salary of the teacher. Working men are devoting their skill and labor to building the shelters, and making the toys and equipment needed. Mothers and other helpers are giving their services daily in the care and training of the children, in cooking their food, and in cleaning; medical attention is forthcoming and the local directors of education do what is possible to assist.

When we try to imagine the incalculable amount of preventable disease and sickness in every country which no remediable measures reach at all, when we try to realize the meaning of the increasingly urgent evidence of modern research as carried on by physicians, surgeons, psychologists, psychiatrists, and medical officers of health—that the cause of the majority of mental breakdowns in adult life, as well as of physical debility and susceptibility to infection is to be found in inadequate or mistaken conditions or treatment of the pre-school years, the sense of urgency in the nursery school movement throughout the world can hardly be resisted.

It is possible, however, to place undue emphasis on the nursery school as a method of curing defect rather than of nurturing healthy growth. There is a tendency amongst some to think of the nursery school chiefly as a group of children of pre-school age, all already maimed or in some way abnormal, brought to the nursery school to be cured of whatever defect may be found to be crippling development.

But surely the nursery school functions perfectly when it takes the normal two-year-old and helps his parents to carry him through the next few critical years in perfect health of mind and body.

Important as it is to eliminate defect at an early age, how enormously more important to every nation is the provision of adequate conditions and full opportunity for development, for all its best born, healthy, vigorous babies without distinction through the pre-school years. Although such conditions obviously include much beside the establishment of nursery schools yet it is in place here to notice that the nursery school has so far proved its capacity to fulfill its aims, that it may be claimed to be an indispensable institution to a nation that is determined to eliminate all the unnecessary undermining of health and vigor in the early life of its citizens that is now taking place all over the world. This claim has come to be widely and sincerely accepted in China, but such is our curious scale of values, that nursery schools though not necessarily more costly than primary schools are said to be "too expensive." The way of life of a nursery school gives a child his first rudimentary experience of at least three of the fundamental characteristics of a happy community life—the entering into common interests with others—the free sharing of what is limited in quantity and voluntary activity on behalf of the whole group rather than of self alone.

Looking thus to the future, the Nursery School Association of Great Britain is determined to do all that in it lies to secure that the provision of *sites for Nursery Schools* shall find its due place in the new *Town Planning Schemes* that are now re-

ceiving attention. The present Government is giving some encouragement to local authorities to make schemes for the elimination of the slums districts within their areas in three or five years, and a number of local authorities are making plans to take advantage of this. The clearance of slums means of course also the rehousing of the inhabitants in new homes in healthy areas. The character of these new centres of population in the future depends to a large extent upon the plans that are made now. The particular aspect that concerns the Nursery School Association of the many problems involved in rehousing a large number of families in a new district is the reservation of sites in convenient places for nursery schools so that they may be available for all the families that desire to use them. We feel that this is a matter of serious importance. In the older centres of population, one of the greatest difficulties at present in getting nursery schools built is that of securing suitable sites. The network of streets, the crowded buildings, the lack of green spaces, often form almost insuperable obstacles to the plans for supplying the homes that need it most, with the services of a nursery school.

Moreover the nursery school has, we believe, an important contribution to make in cases where the sudden transference from slum conditions to garden suburbs comes as an unwelcome shock to people who have never known normal conditions of living. Sometimes a tremendous change of standards is required, an adjustment which it is almost impossible for the people to make without much unhappiness caused by the uprooting of old associations and the total unfamiliarity of the new. The experience of the past has shown that the intimate knowledge that exists between the families the nursery school serves, and the teachers and helpers of the nursery school, together with the plain demonstration which the nursery school gives continuously to parents and children alike of the joyousness and goodness of a healthy well ordered life, in close touch with nature and open spaces, does more to transform the standard of

home life in the neighborhood where it is placed than any other influence. Many social and religious workers as well as teachers and parents will testify to this.

There is one feature of nursery school education that is, I take it, common to the nursery schools of all countries, and that is the principle of self-education within a community life. In England the nursery school is differentiated from the day nursery largely by the recognition in the former, and the absence of recognition in the latter, of the need to make provision in the children's human and material environment for the possibility of self-education within, and indeed by means of, the way of life in a small community. I believe that this characteristic environment and way of life in a nursery school are of serious social significance, and that they will be so increasingly as the ways of the nursery school come to be followed in principle in the primary and senior schools. In the typical nursery school, as is well known to all here, the little child finds himself in an environment which is deliberately adapted to his own small but growing powers, one which calls to him for effort and mastery just because it offers new opportunities of activity that he has not known before in forms that are within his capacities.

What is the result upon the child? One obvious result is that he learns to act freely within his environment. The continual inevitable inhibitions of the ordinary home-life are absent. The impulse to do, to act, to carry out thought into action is unhindered and unforced. He deals with the variety of the material things around him without the intervention of grown-up people. He teaches himself to control them, and himself in relation to them. As far as possible, what he wants he must get for himself without depending on others to get it for him. To a considerable extent he looks after his own person. He becomes observant of the ways of others and imitates them when it suits his own purposes. He becomes accustomed to making decisions, to experiment, to learn by failure; he experiences successful achievement. It is, as we all

know, common for the visitor to a nursery school to be amazed at the self-control, decision, fearlessness and self-reliance that the freedom within a carefully prepared environment generates, in even the youngest children.

Again the social significance of the nursery school is seen in its adoption of a simple community life as essential to the full development of individual powers, and as furnishing the little child with a unifying interest that by degrees harmonises all his activities. We see that it is during the pre-school years—between babyhood and school life—that the little child makes amazingly rapid advances in the wish and capacity to share experiences with other children, an advance with which his language does not keep pace, but which shows itself even during the third year in his eager participation in all the daily life of the little community.

Lastly, we are beginning to perceive in England, as has long ago been discovered in the United States, that our movement which began with an effort, on behalf of young children, to grapple with a desperate social environment, is not going to stay there. Parents of all conditions of life are beginning to call for nursery schools. The only child needs it, the rich child hampered by personal service and too many of the good things of life needs it, the family of moderate means that cannot afford to employ a nurse needs it, the new intelligent parent, no longer satisfied with any kind of

nursemaid clamors for it. Private nursery schools are springing up in all directions. And what does the wealthy or cultured parent ask for from the nursery school?—precisely the conditions, the same kind of care and opportunity that are offered to the children living in the worst slums of our crowded cities.

Thus the fundamental needs of the pre-school child are the same, into whatever walk of life he may be born. The nursery school offers a developing way of life to all alike, and may serve as a bond of true sympathy and understanding between citizens of all classes and conditions. Still happier is the thought of the nursery school movement as one which has its place in *all nations amongst all races, and which must therefore become a bond between all.*

The idea of the brotherhood of nations and of all the races of the earth is one to which it is easy to give lip service, but hard to embrace in practice, with all its implications—*how hard we are still learning by sad experience every day.* But as each nation comes, as it must come, to exalt the significance of a perfect childhood for its own people, so each must come to respect the childhood of other nations, and the world movement towards the deeper study of care of the pre-school years will play no mean part in bringing about between all nations *the sympathy that comes from realizing together a great common purpose: full development for all, of the promise of childhood.*

Clouds

Mountain down,
Cotton of the hill,
Whitecaps of the sky's deep blue,
Earth's own breeze-blown frills.

—GASTON BURRIDGE, in *Westward*.

Varied Practices—Progress or Disintegration?

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THE VALUE OF VARIED PRACTICES

THE great variety of practice found in the primary grades at the present time might well be described by the word "heterogeneous." There seems to be no uniformity, no generally accepted procedure. Perhaps this seeming lack of standardization is hopeful, or is it perhaps more desirable to have fixed standards? Is it helpful merely to describe the status quo in all its heterogeneity, or would a survey of actual practice give one the basis, or can it yield some basis for prophecy—some trend? Can this heterogeneity be sorted and ordered so that it may be better understood in terms of trends or causes which may be a better basis for hope and criticism?

Is it not possible that the practices instead of being mere variety are instead points in a flux which indicate that practice is not static, that there is considerable evidence that it is changing and if we understand the present inadequacies, and also understand the needs for change that may not only be understood as causes but employed to give this change social significance, meaning and direction? Time and space do not permit the presentation of the whole array of unselected, mixed samples together with the type of analysis which refers each to the factors that have made it what it is, and places it in the chronology of educational thought and procedure. There is, however, evidence that this array falls into a pattern which definitely pictures trends and fortifies our highest hopes in the social significance of primary education. It is this ordered array into which these practices fall when they are thus related to the very processes of change that present a means of fortifying whatever note of prophecy such presentation warrants. The challenge to professional effort to participate in effecting and promoting intelligent and orderly transition instead of being passive critics, or uncritical innovators is at hand!

DISINTEGRATION OR PROGRESS

Is it only when one sees successive stages of a movement brought together under the spotlight of present consideration that one becomes truly aware of the nature, degree and reality of change, and recognizes it as disintegration on the one hand or progress on the other?

What practices existing in the present are hang-overs from a past which does not relinquish its hold? The statement is frequently made that many school situations are more than twenty years behind the times in actual practice. There is every evidence of conscientious laboring in the cause of education, and yet, even as this is true one finds teachers working diligently but unthinkingly, with the children under their direction and guidance. What has produced this situation? Why is it that teachers who are apparently so eager for help as witnessed by attendance at summer schools, extension courses, lectures, and the like, nevertheless proceed with their own work in ways that show a very definite clinging to the past?

What values give these practices a lingering chance of persistence? What is the psychology of reducing this tenacity? On the other hand, what are the fears that make people afraid to do what has not always been done? Are these fears justified by causal factors which must be attacked or are they likely to vanish to the degree that the untried becomes the tested and the true? What are the half truths and the panaceas, the piecemeal solutions?—the assumptions and the illusions which must be challenged? Where does a lack of psychological insight or social vision block or reveal the fundamental need? These searching questions are presented here to enable the reader to see more than the surface in the selected samples of prevailing practice which are ordered for consideration. The following samples of existing practices, al-

though few in number, are nevertheless thoroughly representative of actual practice today.

HIDEBOUND APPRENTICESHIPS

First, attention is directed to the classroom where one finds a system of hidebound apprenticeship on the part of the teacher. She goes about her work doing what she has been told to do, and if it is wrong it is because people have assumed that the way to make a teacher was to tell her what to do. Granted what she did may have been, from many points of view, wrong, how much effectiveness in subsequent situations can be expected if she is merely *told* some better way to do it? The story of Epaminondus carrying butter in his hat will serve to illustrate this point.

To see the problem from another angle there are many teachers who rather universally consider that conscientiousness with regard to their school responsibilities consists in trying to find out what the superintendent, the principal, and supervisor want and then trying to do those things as thoroughly and indefatigably as possible. It is this desire which makes a teacher keep a seven-year-old child in school after three in the afternoon to teach him how to read when he has been in school since eighty-three in the morning. Any investigation, or even common sense directed toward the needs of the child, would show her that this is *not* being conscientious but is positively immoral. Are there not better ways to meet such a situation instead of the blind following of dictates offered under the guise of helpfulness but which all too often savor of reprimand? An open, frank, discussion of the factors which generally lead up to such situations, a more adequate interpretation of the psychology of childhood, recognition of the inevitable results of neglecting these considerations together with the opportunity to work out over a period of time, ways of either preventing a recurrence of the act or the intelligent solution of the difficulty at the time because of previous, thoughtful, analytical experiences which served as the basis then for future procedure.

What is the matter with a situation that tells a teacher something is wrong but furnishes no leadership to make it right? The criticism may well point to training schools, courses of study, principals, supervisors, and to all those who in their impatience to improve a single situation, and to achieve short range values, become responsible for the very kind of teaching which they could help to relegate to the past.

VAGUE GENERALITIES

Another prevailing practice common among teachers is that of indulging in vague generalities. Teachers talk about "cultivating interests," "making things interesting," and then apparently forget or violate in their practice the psychology implied in these phrases. The relation between general theory and practice might have been pointed out. The inferences from such guidance would have developed into a realization of how interests are built. Ways and means of seeking challenging interests—interests that grip the children and stir them to action—would then be welcomed and would be much more to the point and hold the teacher to a higher intellectual level than is possible where vagueness prevails. There is also a certain glibness in discussing educational theory and great willingness to talk *about* teaching but there is utter failure to recognize realities and concretize the principles in practice.

MORE ADEQUATE KNOWLEDGE OF CHILD NATURE NEEDED

Unfamiliarity with real children coupled with spurious assumptions about *the* "average child," *"the six-year-old," "the primary child,"* and other abstractions often result in practices not wholly desirable. Here the professional writer, the whole teacher training curriculum, with its lack of concurrent laboratory experience with children and intimate relationship of such contacts with theory courses will bear no small part of the censure. All too frequently the assumptions, while based upon some slight evidence, need re-interpretation in the light of first hand experience and knowledge. For example, it

is often said that "children like little things," or that they like to make certain things as judged by the eagerness with which they grasp the opportunity to engage in the smallest activity that presents itself. Is it really eagerness for the activity or is it relief from the tedium of the average classroom which seems to provide the motive for child interest? If the children had been given abundant experience in choosing and making decisions would they then make such choices and be credited with such interests?

COÖPERATION OF TEACHERS AND SCIENTIFIC INVESTIGATORS

Another illustration is that of the teacher whose practice is referred to the scientist who has determined what particular number combination to start with first when a child is embarking on the subject of arithmetic. Here, again, unfamiliarity with the normal experiences of child life is often evidenced in these scientific findings. The co-operation of the scientific investigator and the teacher who is in actual practice in the classroom will yield data of inestimable value. Such coöperation is imperative if the researches are to serve the best purposes of the group for which they were intended, namely, the classroom teacher. In the light of such coöperative and creative endeavor teachers will thus be enabled to face their problems and to move in new directions.

MOTIVES DOMINATING SCHOOL PRACTICES

Consider the matter of motive which is so closely tied up with character. Abiding motives are developed when values are experienced together in relationships such as life presents. They are broken down when life presents situations from which school values are detached. The school must relate learning to life values. The home and school offer "rewards" which, in turn, brings the question, why should the child see why he should do things when there is no "reward"? School "marks" and the whole false structure of trades need to be considered where the child strives for this extrinsic thing rather than realizing the inherent and

intrinsic value of the activity itself. Even the system of "policing" commonly found in schools for the maintenance of order by devious ways are directly concerned with motive.

Competition is fostered by the school often as an incentive for learning and yet there is evidence that because people have been so competitive the whole social order has collapsed. There are also many illustrations of those individuals who, finding they cannot compete, go to pieces, thereby giving evidence that the very principles of mental hygiene have been contradicted in school practice.

The disintegrating effect of competition in social, economic, and political life, is obvious, but to be more constructive in our thinking attention is directed toward the integrative factors which should operate. "Health is integration when the parts are linked in harmonious working relation." There is recognition too of the fact that human "life grows more adequate as it grows increasingly competent in the linking of itself with the various realities of its environment. If this is true, then the basic education of life should be training in unification or integration." The most desirable experiences found in the primary grades are intended to lead the child from his place of isolation into the major activities of the world about him. In so doing, the world of the arts—poetry, music, drama, and of the sciences—with discoveries and inventions help to integrate his life with the world of culture and achievement. How long will schools resist these necessities, or fail to take advantage of the materials on which optimal development toward the good life depend?

HOPEFUL SIGNS

Some of the illustrations presented are somewhat negative although they are found in abundance in actual practice. There are however many school situations in which activities of the school are related to life and life purposes. One finds children quite naturally doing things that need to be done and where these same children recognize social

obligations and intrinsic incentives. In such a situation which is conducive to the highest and best type of learning, children are beginning to run on their own steam as they must do in life. In such a school there is the opportunity to plan leisure instead of fiddling with insignificant work.

A group of children intent upon studying the similarities of peoples rather than their differences worked together for a period of six weeks with the result that they reached a place where they could *think as a group* about international values. To accomplish this is an important step in social emphasis and direction.

Another illustration in coöperative thinking was found in a first grade where the children had been working with an actual vegetable garden. The development of community relationships, the tie-up with the homes and the parents of the different children, the economic situation with reference to need, buying and selling—all served to make the learning situation not only life-like, but life itself.

Again, the interest of a second grade focused upon a large map of the United

States with the name of their own city in larger print. Their conversation regarding distance, time needed to travel, expense, etc., had all the accompanying considerations generally found at the adult level. Thus used, even our poorest practices in primary education must challenge constructive criticism and suggest ways and means to progress.

Let us not be placed in the same class as those who tend to destroy that which they do not understand. Let us instead not hold fast to the past because it is the past, but let us use the knowledge and experience gained in the past, conserve its values and re-direct the education of teachers and children so that our schools may be worthy of the trust that is vested in them. Dare we refuse to accept this challenge? May we not seek the direction of human development together with an ever increasing awareness of how values develop and lead on, recognizing fully the necessity for clearing away misconceptions and false ideas, and "attempting to re-think our problem in terms not only of essential creativeness but also in the generative interrelations of life."

Angles

Fence-corners were his failing.
These he could not pass
Without a pause to gaze upon
Tall, rail-shadowed grass.

Let mustard-seed or iris,
Goldenrod or clover
Be cornered, and his sickle-blade
Lifted cleanly over,

Left them there for colored
Lighting of a fence
That crooked an arm about his strange,
Sharp-angled preference.

FRANCES M. FROST, in *Hemlock Walls*.

Research Needs in the Kindergarten-Primary Field

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WHEN Ellen Keys pronounced the 20th Century "the century of the child" her statement was not only keen observation but sound prophecy. For not only are inquiry and experimentation in the field of childhood now engaging the attention of literally hundreds of students, but major researches in most areas of human behavior have recognized the genetic approach so ably launched by that great pioneer, G. Stanley Hall, and have related their methods and goals to the task of determining the genesis and developmental course of those functions which we call human.

In accepting the assignment of suggesting needed research in the pre-school-primary field, I have limited my task to the selection of a few fields in which it seems to me that more knowledge is urgently needed by teachers, supervisors and school administrators in order to improve their service to childhood.

A review of approximately 1,000 research articles dealing with infancy and childhood, published during the past two years, reveals the trend of interest manifested by the men and women undertaking these studies.

The largest single group is concerned with physical health and disease. Twenty-one per cent of the titles fall in this category. The range of types investigated is tremendous. Most of these studies, however, have significance chiefly for the pediatrician, as for example, studies in the relatively new field of endocrinology. Some of these researches, however, have a practical application to school procedures and a direct bearing on the responsibilities which modern schools accept in connection with the health of the growing children intrusted to them. I refer to studies like that of Turner, Lytle, and Winnemore, published

in the *American Journal of Public Health*, May 1932, and entitled "Intermittency in Growth as an Index of Health Status." This study of the weight and health records of 971 growing children in the elementary schools of Walden, Mass., revealed unhygienic living habits, incomplete recovery from illness, or physical defects in children who failed to gain over a three-month period. This would seem to be a clear indication of the necessity of monthly weighing and observation of growing children in our schools.

The next largest group of investigations is found in the field of mental development and behavior,—this group comprising 16 per cent of the published studies. If one includes with these studies those which are more sharply classified under the captions: personality, mental hygiene and psychiatry, and intelligence, the per cent reaches slightly over 30, or approximately $\frac{1}{3}$ of the thousand titles reviewed.

It is obviously impossible in the time at our disposal to attempt even a mention of the problems which hundreds of these excellent studies attack. One feels it an impertinence to attempt to select those of most practical use to the teacher. But a keen desire to help that often confused, usually conscientious, and always hurried person leads one to mention studies like that of Lucile Chase, from the University of Iowa Child Welfare Station, which deals with the "Influence of Certain Types of External Incentives upon the Performance of a Task." This study of children aged 2 to 8 found that praise and reward are more effective than knowledge of success alone, and that reproof or punishment are more successful than mere knowledge of failure—facts which we may not blink, if we are to face reality and help children to face it.

A study by Jersild and Markey, made in

the Child Development Institute, Columbia University, dealing with the "Imaginative Behavior in the Play of Pre-School Children" yields rich suggestive material for the teachers of young children, and points the way to improved practices as well as to better interpretations of children's behavior and keener insight into their mental life.

The next largest group of experimental titles, approximately 14 per cent of the thousand reviewed, has to do with problems of physiology and biochemistry, fields too technical and specialized to yield much material of practical significance to teachers, though teeming with value for the physician, the nurse, and the public health official.

The same limitation applies to the group of studies dealing with anatomy and physical growth, 6 per cent of the titles.

Research in social and economic problems as they relate to young childhood make up 7 per cent of the studies and here two studies should be mentioned, in view of the contradictory statements regarding the effect of the depression on child health, which have appeared under high authority.

Miss Abbott, Chief of the Children's Bureau, published in the *American Journal of Sociology*, May 1932, the statement that data gathered from various sources indicated that already in 1931 the depression was revealing its effects in a considerable increase in malnutrition. J. Lewis Blanton, publishing in the *West Virginia Medical Journal*, April 1932, estimates that 25 per cent of children are undernourished when they enter school, and points out that underweight is only one evidence of malnutrition. Fatigue, and body mechanism, such as fatigue posture and "debutante slouch" are important. So also are eye-strain and the physical defects, emotional disturbances, and overactivities (school work, music, and dancing lessons, movies, etc.). These things teachers can and should observe, report, and attempt to ameliorate.

Other categories include studies in the

following proportion: education, 4.4 per cent; heredity, eugenics and evolution, 4 per cent; special abilities and disabilities, 3.8 per cent; tests and measurements, 2.7 per cent; miscellaneous, 1 per cent.

In all these fields, and especially in those embracing the physical and mental hygiene of early childhood, the available information, based on extended research, far outstrips our mastery and application of the facts. It might be pertinent to suggest a research into the amount of study which teachers and other school persons are devoting to the technical aspects of their job dealt with in the sources here so inadequately reviewed.

I am lead to this suggestion through the observation of a class-room situation which recently came to my attention. The principal of an elementary school in our city requested help of the research department in the case of a group of kindergarten children who seemed uniformly below average in maturity. Their responses were sluggish, their energy output abnormally low, and the whole aspect of the room was lacking in the spontaneity, activity, and joy which such a group usually presents. Observations were made in the room and objective data collected on the basis of tests of reading readiness. The results seemed to warrant an interpretation of the cause differing from the one which had been assumed and it was recommended that this group be promoted in the usual way to B1 work, but that they be given to a teacher in that building who was entirely different in temperament, whose personality radiated joy and energy, whose approach to little children was one of friendly liking, whose voice was quiet but colored with energy and humor. The effect was startlingly swift. There was no better first grade in the building.

This matter of teacher personality, then, and its effect upon children, is one to which I would invite the attention of research students and directors.

Another field for research and definition has been opened up by the tremendous drive for "informal" versus "formal" educational methods. Teachers and adminis-

trators alike are confused with regard to the limits and implications of that term "informal." Some of us have witnessed what we believe to be malpractice in the name of informal procedure, practice which seems to militate against that fundamental law of mental hygiene—the necessity of a task or goal, and orderly sequence of thought and act in reaching that goal.

You will have noted that the research studies coming under the head of education made up only 4 per cent of those examined. They do not give us all the information we need in determining certain basic policies related to the curriculum suited to children in the early grades. In spite of several notable contributions in these fields, we need further facts and more explicit guidance on the optimal time for the introduction of formal reading and formal number work for young children. We need to know whether the claim is true that we are seriously impairing the eye-sight of the race by permitting children of five, six, or even seven, to use their eyes in the fine coördinations necessitated in reading. We need to know whether we risk killing the child's interest in reading, if we arbitrarily delay this activity. We need to know, through experimentation, whether we *can* delay it, and what purposeful activities can be substituted, and how these substitutions can be brought about.

We need to have authoritative guidance in the vexed questions of arithmetic. Is it true, as some studies seem to show, that children whose formal number work is begun much later than the conventional time, do as well or better in their arithmetic in the later grades?

And, finally, we need research on the question of marks and other competitive rewards. Evidence from many progressive schools, both public and private, seem to show the possibility and desirability of doing away with marks altogether. Are the advantages of this procedure unassailable? Can it be applied in large as well as in small schools? Is it a soft pedagogy which ill fits children to adjust to a society which rewards success and brands failure in easily

recognizable manner? How shall we train teachers to stimulate children to their best efforts by means other than marks?

And now, to recapitulate:

Research in the field of the pre-school and the primary school child is being ardently and intelligently pursued in a great variety of fields. The past five years have witnessed the publication of important research in the physical growth, and health, mental maturing, emotional development, language attainment and social acquirements of children from infancy into late childhood.

The tremendous changes which are taking place with breath-taking rapidity in our socio-economic life are crystalizing our ideas of desirable goals for child training and we find ourselves faced with the urgent necessity of determining and instigating the optimal methods of attaining those goals.

As school people, faced with the responsibility of helping parents (often bewildered) to inculcate in children those attitudes and habits which will serve them best in a confused world, we need most:

1. Research which will determine what qualities should be demanded in teachers who are to be associated with young children, and by what methods teachers who lack these qualities can be either (a) identified and eliminated from eligible lists, (b) re-trained and moulded more to the heart's desire.
2. Research which will define "informal school procedure" and which will determine:
 - a. What is "formal" procedure?
 - b. How much formal procedure is desirable, and at what ages?
3. Research which will determine more exactly the criteria for reading-readiness.
 - a. Oral vocabulary norms
 - b. Effects of early reading on vision
 - c. Effects of attitudes of adults in the years preceding the start in reading.
4. Research which will determine the effects of delaying the teaching of arithmetic until grade two, three, four, or later.
5. Research which will determine the effects of marks and other competitive awards and which will study the possibility of some substitute for them as motivating forces.

What Price Kindergartens?

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THE kindergarten at the present time is undergoing grave consideration in many parts of the country. As this trying period of economic difficulty continues on its relentless march, administrators are forced increasingly to scrutinize each separate phase of the school program in search of additional possibilities of curtailment. The kindergarten necessarily must prove its value and justify its place in education.

It is of the utmost importance at this time that teachers, administrators, school boards and the general public be informed fully in regard to the values of the kindergarten. Those of us who are interested in preserving and promoting this important branch of child-training must keep these values fresh in our minds, on the tip of our tongues, ready to dispense whenever the moment is propitious.

What are the values of the kindergarten? What do children do in the kindergarten other than "just play"? What contribution does the kindergarten make to general child development? What contribution does the kindergarten make to the field of subject matter instruction? What are the results which are supposed to accrue from kindergarten training? In short, what price would we pay if we should dispense with the kindergarten?

In answering these questions, we might reply first of all, that the kindergarten makes a rich contribution to social growth. For example: a few days ago Tommy started to climb the olive tree. Instantly several other children scrambled to the tree to accompany him in his feat. Tommy was older and more mature in his physical development than the others. It seemed entirely safe for Tommy to climb but the teacher immediately sensed the danger of letting the younger children join in this activity. So she explained the matter to them saying that they would need to grow

before it was safe for them to climb the olive tree. "But," she added, "we can all have the fun of watching Tommy climb." In an instant an interested group had assembled gazing upward joyously, expectantly, almost breathlessly as they watched Tommy carefully picking his way from one branch to another. Finally he came to a difficult pass—the branches were too far apart to accommodate his limited reach. The teacher quietly walked over and gave him a boost, after which to everyone's complete satisfaction Tommy ascended to the pinnacle of the olive tree.

In life's endeavors we are not all able to climb to the very top of the olive tree. It is a pretty good thing for us to learn in our early years to enjoy watching others climb, even to the point of experiencing satisfaction when someone else gives a boost to one who is so earnestly striving to make the ascent by himself.

It is in such ways as this that the kindergarten makes its contribution to social growth. Satisfactory social adjustments effected at this plastic and impressionable stage in the child's development may cause him to work more efficiently and more happily with his fellows throughout life.

Another line of growth which the kindergarten promotes is that of individual responsibility; the ability and desire to take responsibility and to execute it independently and under one's own direction.

"I wish we didn't have to have a teacher in here with us," said Dick the other day as the children lay on their cots for their period of relaxation. "We could rest just as well without a teacher standing around."

"Well, if you think you can, I will leave you to yourselves," said the kindergarten director as she walked out and softly closed the door. Needless to say, sounds of snickering, creaking cots, and occasional pitter-patters of feet issued from the rest room during the next few minutes—but

the teacher did not interfere. At the end of the period the children assembled for conference. "Did you rest well?" asked the teacher. "No, I didn't rest well," said Marion. "There was too much noise." "I didn't rest," said June, "Billy was hollering all the time." And so it went the rounds, several said that they did not rest well. The entire situation was discussed pro and con by the children. Finally they decided to let those who could rest by themselves stay in the regular rest room, alone, and to have those who couldn't rest by themselves go into another room with the teacher.

This plan is being carried out at the present time. Occasionally someone who thinks he can rest by himself is not able to do so and has to come into the teacher's room. More often those in the teacher's room develop in responsibility for resting until they can be transferred to the children's room.

Think of the significant learning resulting from a single experience of this sort! Children are taking on responsibility for resting, for relaxing—a valuable asset in the life of any individual.

Then there is the moral development which takes place in the kindergarten. The child who stays home until he is six years old misses many of the moral experiences which accompany group life. The punishments administered by young mothers are usually some such measures as isolation, physical pain, or making the child tell God what he has done. Probably there are cases in which any one of these punishments might be a desirable one to inflict; often, however, such methods are entirely ineffective. Take the case of Glenn who was always telling his mother about the big bears he saw on the front porch. As a means of curing him of this misbehavior his mother one day told him to go to his room and tell God what he had said. After a time Glenn returned to the living room. His mother inquired with assurance, "Well, did you tell God all about it?" "Yes, I did," said Jack, "and God said he'd seen bears out there, himself!" Quite ineffective was this punishment in so far as moral development was concerned.

Take a similar case in the kindergarten: Betty Jean came to school each morning with "a big story" about an imaginary something that had happened to her the night before. This story was seriously related to the teacher as a real experience, not because Betty Jean intentionally wished to prevaricate but because her imagination was so vivid that she did not draw sharp lines of demarcation between fact and fancy. One morning when Betty Jean began her usual story the teacher said, "Let's save that story till story-hour, Betty Jean. The other children will like to hear a story that you *made up*." At story-hour time it was announced that Betty Jean had *made up* a story which she would like to tell. After Betty Jean had finished her tale, the teacher said, "Now, we have heard a story that was made up, can any of you tell a *real* story about something that happened to you?" Several real stories were told. This practice was continued for five days. On the sixth day Betty Jean volunteered, "I have a *real* story today"—and she did! A kindergarten situation and a skillful teacher had combined to develop in Betty Jean the ability to discriminate between a truth and an untruth.

In the active social life of the modern kindergarten moral problems are always arising. Nancy broke the head off the kindergarten doll. Should she tell the teacher or should she tell the other children, or should she place the head back on the doll's shoulders and just keep still? June was pouring orange juice for the children at her table. Should she pour her own glass first and fill it to the brim to be sure she had plenty? Or should she pour the other children's first and take what was left for herself? Or should she even up the juice in all the glasses? And so it is with any group of children who live and work and play together. They are constantly facing moral situations. The experience of living through such situations and arriving at correct solutions concerning them is the best method of developing right habits of moral action.

The emotional development of the child

is a crucial aspect of his growth at the kindergarten stage. Emotional attitudes—hates, likes, sulks, and pouts may be developed at this age which will persist throughout the child's entire life. As Froebel said, "You may at this time do with a featherweight which you later could not undo with a hundred weight." The trained kindergarten teacher understands this and works constantly toward the building up of right attitudes, while this matter of attitudes is not always so skillfully handled in the home.

Five-year-old Ruth frequently stole into the pantry and flaked frosting off the cakes for a dainty titbit between meals. One day, hoping to cure her of this naughtiness, her mother shut her in a dark closet for ten minutes. At the end of the time she opened the door and inquired, "Now are you going to be a good girl?"

"No," shouted Ruth. "I hate you! I 'pit all over your new hat, and I 'pit all over your new dress, and when I get some more 'pit I'll 'pit all over your shoes!"

This emotional outburst was more harmful to Ruth than was her original naughtiness.

In the modern kindergarten, children are given abundant opportunity to build up wholesome attitudes, and to avoid undesirable ones which often accompany the punishments of repression, isolation, or physical pain.

Here is an example: the students in the Industrial Arts class at Broadoaks painted some attractive wooden figures of animals, birds, and brownies for the kindergarten playground. When they had finished, the art teacher carefully selected the setting which would be most appropriate for each particular figure: the monkey was hung by his tail in the ivy-vines, the duck was placed on the brink of the pool in readiness for a plunge, the rabbit was deposited in a clump of ferns with just his two long ears peeping up above the fronds, and so on—each figure was placed in a way which would give the most artistic effect.

The next morning when the children arrived they immediately noticed the

figures, ran to them in glee, uprooted them from their settings, carried them away, romped up and down the playground, trampled over them, dragged them in the dust and abused them generally—much to the chagrin of the Industrial Arts students who had expected that the children would look upon the figures as permanent decorations and not as manipulative toys.

After a few minutes of this rough and vigorous play the duck came to disaster. Dick fell on him and broke off his head!

An outdoor conference was called. One by one the children came dragging their figures with them and sat down in a circle under one of the great oaks in the yard. The broken duck was held up for inspection and the children were genuinely sorry about his plight. The teacher asked if they knew why the figures had been placed in their playground. The children reasoned that they must have been placed there for them to play with. Why would anyone put such things in *their* yard if they were not for them to enjoy? The discussion proceeded, and finally the point was made that if they continued to play with the figures they would soon be broken and they could no longer enjoy them. "Well, what shall we do about it?" asked the teacher, finally. "Put them back and leave them alone," said Billy. And at that, as if by magic, the figures were returned to their original places and have never been touched since that day. Obedience was obtained and at the same time wholesome emotional attitudes were built instead of harmful ones.

There is intellectual development in the kindergarten, also. Here is an instance: the children were making a rattle-box by placing stones in a round cardboard carton. But when they rattled the stones the lid flew off. They set their minds to work on the problem and decided that they could paste some strips of paper on the top of the lid and the side of the carton to hold the cover on. Much discussion and experimentation followed in regard to the number of strips, and where they should be placed. After all was said and done it was discovered that the strips were ineffective in

holding on the lid. More reasoning and problem-solving followed. Finally it was decided to put paste all around the rim of the cover and to paste the cover right on to the carton itself. This worked and the joy of solving an intellectual problem was experienced!

One surely must mention the development of more abundant health as a kindergarten product. The kindergarten occupies a strategic position between the various infant welfare agencies and the primary school, and because of this position it serves as a health recruiting station for the public schools. In addition to this very important function, the kindergarten in itself is conducive to the conservation and promotion of health. The large play equipment and the free active organization of the kindergarten are both aids in building strong bodies. Furthermore, regular habits are established: habits of rising regularly each morning in order to get to school on time, habits of cleanliness, habits of regular elimination, habits of relaxation, are all built in the kindergarten. Children here also have regular inspection by a nurse which they would not have in their own homes. The part which the kindergarten plays in building health both mental and physical is one of the strongest arguments for its existence.

Let's take the case of Diane. When Diane came to school in September she often fell when she ran, she was highly excitable, and screamed when things did not go her way. She was shown how to climb on the trapeze and other apparatus with emphasis on holding on. She was given two rest periods a day when she must withdraw from the other children, go into a quiet room by herself and relax. She was made to feel responsible for her own conduct and was given as much freedom as she could use wisely. At the end of two months both falling and screaming had practically disappeared. Just one example of the kindergarten's contribution to health!

One could discuss many other worthy products of kindergarten training in the field of physical, mental, emotional and

social growth. He could show how the kindergarten contributes to growth in leadership, initiative, perseverance, co-operation, consideration of others, and several additional qualities which are equally as worthy of consideration. But, perhaps, enough has been said to point out the values of the kindergarten in promoting such general growths. Let us now turn to its functions in the more tangible fields of subject matter instruction.

First, we might mention what we should not expect of the kindergarten in the way of subject matter results. There are a few misconceptions in the minds of people not trained in the kindergarten field which should be corrected.

Until recently, we have measured the values of all school training in terms of knowledge memorized and skills acquired rather than in terms of general child development. Under such an appraisal, the kindergarten found scant argument for existence. Goaded by administrators to show tangible results in the school subjects some kindergarten teachers have resorted to teaching reading and arithmetic to their children. Such a practice most certainly should not be countenanced. There are too many other valuable things to be done in the kindergarten to spend time in teaching formal subject matter. Furthermore, the average child is not sufficiently mature at this stage to take on subject matter instruction. So those who expect to see subject matter results in the kindergarten children are asking for something which the kindergarten is not or never has been expected to produce. In special cases in which a few bright children seem ready for such instruction and wish to have it, then of course it should not be withheld. In general, however, the kindergarten should not be expected to teach reading, arithmetic, spelling or any other of the formal subjects.

But even though the function of the kindergarten is not that of teaching subject matter directly, its activities are so rich and varied that children pick up skills and information in the several subject mat-

ter fields just as incidental by-products. In this way a foundation is laid for all of the subjects taught in the primary grades.

The foundation for arithmetic is laid in connection with numerous activities which make use of incidental numbers.

Russell arranged the chairs for a group who were going to sit at the book table. He had five chairs placed at the side of the table. Six children left their seats to come to the table. Before they reached the spot, Russell said, "I'll need another chair," and hurried to get it.

Dick was telling the class about his trip to Catalina. He explained that the island was twenty miles from the mainland and that it took two hours to get there. The teacher asked if the children knew how long two hours were. It was finally pointed out that two hours was just the same length of time as the children spent in school in the forenoon.

All such informal uses of number build up rich concepts which contribute greatly to the teaching of arithmetic in the grades.

Kindergarten training also affords the child a good start on the road to reading. There are attractive books in every good kindergarten: picture books, story books, and collections of verse. These books are conveniently placed on low tables where they will entice children to browse frequently and happily. In the newer scheme of things kindergarten children often make books. One class made a bird book containing drawings and post card pictures of birds. All such activities aid in developing an interest in books and reading and this is one of the most significant goals of primary reading instruction.

Then there is the development of meaningful concepts so necessary in beginning reading. First grade primers and readers are now largely based upon child experiences. The rich, varied activities and contacts which the child has in the kindergarten provide him with the background concepts needed in obtaining meanings from the printed descriptions of similar experiences which he will encounter in first grade reading.

Furthermore, kindergarten children have some actual contact with symbols. A kindergarten teacher took her children for a walk. They waited at the corner as the long arm of the semaphore dropped down bearing the "Stop" sign. "I know what that says," cried George. "It says stop." The word on the sign was then pointed out to the other children. "Do you know what it will say when it changes?" asked the teacher. "Go," responded a half a dozen childish voices and everyone waited expectantly for the "Go" sign to appear.

In another kindergarten the teacher brought out a new ball one morning which had the letter K on it. The children asked what the letter meant. The teacher printed "kindergarten" on the board telling the children what it said. She asked if anyone could find a letter in that word which was like the one on the ball. A child pointed out the K. The teacher then drew a circle around the K and explained that since K was the letter with which kindergarten began this same letter was put on their ball so that everyone would know that it belonged to the kindergarten.

Thus it is that the alert kindergartner finds many ways of acquainting children with symbols without formally teaching them to read.

The preparation for writing is not neglected. Kindergarten children engaged in many manipulative activities. They draw, they paint, they handle shells and seeds and sticks, they model in plastic clay. All such activities aid in gaining control over the small muscles which will be called into play in writing later on.

Science has a place in the modern kindergarten program. Diane brought in a seed-pod which she had found under the Eucalyptus tree. All the children were interested in it, so the teacher took time to open the pod, to show the children how it looked inside, and to tell them all about it. The next morning Dick brought in an acorn which he had found under the oak tree and the collection was started. Each day the children brought in different kinds of seeds. Finally they went on an excursion

in one of the parks in search for more. Such experiences as these certainly are the beginnings of science.

What better way could children gain a foundation for the social studies than by carrying out the units of work which one finds in the progressive kindergarten of today? Units on the greenhouse, the beach, the home, boats, trains, airplanes, and similar topics draw heavily on the social study fields. In fact social-study activities form the nuclei about which much of the work of the modern kindergarten is organized.

The language training which the child receives in the kindergarten is of infinite value to him. Here he has abundant practice in expressing himself orally, here he has many and varied experiences each bringing with it its own little stock of new words which he readily incorporates into his vocabulary; here he hears stories and poems from good literature; and here he even has a chance to create his own stories and poems in the unique, rhythmic language of childhood. Such training is of great value to all children and indispensable to foreign children who are so urgently in need of a period of orientation before entering the first grade.

Now let us turn to the finer expressions of life: art and music.

Colored crayons, large soft pencils, drawing paper, low easels and jars of brightly colored paint all seem to beckon to children in the modern kindergarten and to challenge them to creative endeavor. A study¹ was recently made of the spontaneous paintings of kindergarten children. This study revealed the fact that there is a definite advance in the type of expression from the beginning to the end of the kindergarten year. The amount of manipulative drawing becomes gradually less while the symbolistic, the representative, and the patterned drawings grow steadily in frequency and importance. So it seems that kindergarten children make progress also in art.

¹ Jones, Katherine A. *A Study of the Spontaneous Paintings of Nursery School and Kindergarten Children*; Unpublished Master's thesis, Broadoaks School of Education, Whittier College, Pasadena, California: 1933.

Music has always been a favorite subject on the kindergarten. Children have engaged in various rhythmic movements accompanied by music and have learned to sing kindergarten songs. In the progressive kindergarten of today, children frequently compose little melodies, and words to go with them.

In the kindergarten at Broadoaks, the director plays some of the classics for the children from the very beginning of the year. Such selections as Bach's Minuet, Brahms' Cradle Song, a theme from Handel's Largo, and Beethoven's Minuet in G (first two themes) are included in the repertoire.

The children are told the names of the pieces and their composers. They soon come to recognize the different selections and to name them, and later to carry through the sustained melodies without accompaniment.

It is amusing to hear a discussion of this kind carried forward by kindergarten tots: At the end of a rest period the director played one of the classics while the children still lay on their cots. When she had finished she asked if anyone knew what the piece was. Irene hastily called out "Handel's Largo," which happened to be wrong. Whereupon Tommy indignantly rose from his cot and shouted, "It is not. It's Beethoven's Minuet in G!"

This interest in the classics is but one expression of the valuable types of musical training which are possible in the kindergarten.

Now to sum up: what are the values of the kindergarten? What do we have a right to expect as a result of kindergarten training?

In the way of general child development we have a right to expect more abundant health, more wholesome mental attitudes, more satisfactory social adjustments, increased initiative, stronger leadership, desire and capacity for greater responsibility and increased intellectual development.

While these growths are sufficiently significant in themselves to justify the kindergarten, other results may be pointed

out in regard to development in the separate subjects which many people still use as the measuring rod of all school work. If they wish to apply the subject matter criterion to the kindergarten let them, so long as they do not expect formal teaching of the subjects in this field. Through its own informal activities we can show that the kindergarten strives definitely to lay a foundation in science, social studies, language, art, and music. We can *prove* that it lays a foundation in reading and arithmetic. Dr. Josephine McLatchey recently carried through a carefully directed investigation¹ for the purpose of ascertaining the effect of kindergarten attendance on progress in the grades. The results of this study showed conclusively that children who had attended kindergarten were superior to non-kindergarten children in scores resulting from tests in these formal subjects.

So we have a right to expect much from the kindergarten. Let us keep these values freshly in mind and go out in the high-ways and by-ways and tell people about them.

¹ MacLatchy, Josephine. *Attendance of Kindergarten and Progress in the Primary Grades*, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio: 1928.

Tell the parents of your children about them, tell your neighbor about them, tell your banker about them, tell your grocer about them, and above all tell your superintendent and school board about them! Each and every one of us must make it our individual responsibility to dispense information about the functions and values of the kindergarten.

Not only must we disseminate this information *about* the kindergarten, but those of you who are teaching *in* the kindergarten must also do a better job than you have ever done before. You must make sure that you really are developing fully the many-sided capacities of the children who are coming to your classrooms. Check up to see if all these values really *are* resulting from your own teaching.

Don't talk about reduction in salaries and losing your jobs. Talk in terms of your children and work in terms of your children! Challenge yourself to the best that is in you! Make the value of your own kindergarten so great that the public will be willing to pay the price of retaining it even at the sacrifice of other things.

A Rose

A sepal, petal and a thorn
Upon a common summer's morn,
A flash of dew, a bee or two,
A breeze
A caper in the trees—
And I'm a rose!

EMILY DICKINSON

in *Complete Poems*. (Boston: Little Brown.)

Association for Childhood Education

FORTY-FIRST ANNUAL CONVENTION, NASHVILLE,
TENNESSEE, MAY 2-5, 1934

THE forty-first annual convention of the Association for Childhood Education was held in Nashville in the beautiful time of the year, May. Those who had the opportunity of driving through the mountains in approaching the city, arrived in appreciative anticipation of the days to follow. They were not disappointed. Everywhere we were met with beauty, at the teas at the Centennial Club and at Peabody College, at the Belle Meade Country Club, during the garden pilgrimages, at the dinner given at the Agricultural and Industrial State Teachers College and at the Barbecue. Everywhere did we enjoy the beauty of the countryside and everywhere did we find evidence of a vast coöperative endeavor.

The theme of the program was The Child in a Changing Social Order. All speakers emphasized the central topic and we were privileged to hear such outstanding speakers as: Grace Abbott, Chief, Children's Bureau, Washington, D.C.; Henry Gerling, Superintendent, St. Louis, Missouri; Burton Fowler, Tower Hill School, Wilmington, Delaware; Frank N. Freeman, University of Chicago; Mrs. Arthur Shepherd, Cleveland College, Cleveland, Ohio; Walter Cocking, State Commissioner of Education, Tennessee. Co-operative effort was likewise evidenced in messages given by representatives of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the National Association for Nursery Education, the American Association of University Women and the American Association of Home Economics.

Dean John E. Stout of Northwestern University was asked to assemble the outstanding educational implications of the convention. His summary is given at the conclusion of this report.

All in attendance were urged to take part in a series of continued study classes. The group discussions were enthusiastically

attended and decidedly worthwhile. Brief summaries of this class work follow.

CREATIVE ENGLISH

Leader: Jean Betzner, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

The materials under consideration were the significance of creative work in English for the growth of young children and the conditions essential for its stimulation and development. The method used was that of group discussion for which ten members assumed particular responsibility and to which there was generous response from the whole group. The discussion was guided by specific questions, copies of which were in the hands of the audience.

The group took into account the current trends in this phase of the school curriculum, the wide-spread interest and emphasis in the creative aspect of the English program, the renewed emphasis on the reading program to the sacrifice of time for composition, the eagerness for early, tangible evidence of improvement and the real difficulties on the part of teachers to recognize evidences of creative effort. There was no attempt to determine one best method or to set up standards for evaluation. The time was devoted to sharing ideas, experiences and to stimulating broader considerations of the problems involved.

The questions discussed follow:

How fundamental to individual and group development is creative work in English?

What is the relationship between creative English expression and other aspects of the curriculum for young children?

May there be some dangers involved in the current emphasis on this aspect of the curriculum?

What school conditions seem essential to the emergence and development of creative work in English?

What home conditions seem especially favorable to this development?

What are some of the contributing factors in the teacher's own enrichment and preparation?

What aids are needed by teachers and parents for the improvement of this aspect of childlike expression?

Stenographic reports of the discussions and summaries were made. These are to be made available in some form to members of the association.

THE CHILD AND HIS READING

Leaders: Marjorie Hardy, Germantown Friends School, Philadelphia; Marion Monroe, Child Guidance Center, Pittsburgh.

A study group averaging more than five hundred in number met under the leadership of Miss Marjorie Hardy to consider some of the current problems in teaching children to read and to use reading materials. The discussion was led by a group of teachers from various training centers over the country. There were available illustrative materials in the form of experiential, pupil-made stories and sentences, records of experiences involving reading, stimuli for reading and records of progress in reading, to make more vivid and clear the problems under discussion.

At the request of those present much time was spent on the problem of the child's readiness for reading and the means by which this may be ascertained and furthered. Three main topics were discussed:

1. What is being stressed in a school program of "learning to read" which will encourage permanent interest in reading and will make less likely later remedial cases?
2. What is being done to make possible good reading opportunities for all children?
3. What is being done to determine progress in learning on the part of the child?

Dr. Marion Monroe of the Child Guidance Center of Pittsburgh described with much clarity her new perceptual and motor test series to discover and predict the child's probable success in reading. Dr. Louise Farwell of National College of Education discussed some of the more recently dis-

covered factors hindering learning and described tests of hemisphere dominance and their use and interpretation in her interesting work with children. Others of the group contributing were Olga Adams of the University of Chicago, Blanche Kent of Ohio State University, Julia Harris, Peabody College for Teachers and Agnes L. Adams of National College of Education.

ART FOR THE YOUNG CHILD

Leaders: Grace Hoyt, Supervisor of Art, Battle Creek, Michigan; Irene Crofoot, Public Schools, Kalamazoo, Michigan.

Every normal child has some creative ability with materials. To what extent this ability is expressed depends greatly upon his background of experience. It is the teacher's job to enrich this background by providing real experiences and by teaching the child not only to see but to observe. Then he will have ideas and the desire to express them. And perhaps he will be able to express himself pictorially better than in any other way. One of the most suitable mediums for art expression is paint (such as alabastine or posterpaint) which should be applied with a large camel's hair brush to a large paper.

We are not trying to make artists of the children but we wish to give them many opportunities for free and unhampered expression. Never give children any sort of pattern. Do not give them a picture to look at while drawing. Such practices are very cramping eventually to creative expression. Encourage them to express their own ideas even though the product is very crude. It is not the product which is important but what happens inside the children in creating the product.

Make no suggestions as to technique. Technique will grow with the child. When he is ready for help he will ask for it.

Make no suggestions about perspective or proportion. It is not important if his road goes up into his sky. His bird may be larger than his house. Make no comment. He draws large what is important to him. If he reaches the stage where he stops growing the teacher may help with suggestions.

The child should be unhampered by adult standards and principles. He has no use for them.

Do not show him *how to work* but help him with care of materials.

During discussion periods too much attention should not be given to the work of the more capable children. Praise and encourage attempts on the part of the more timid ones. There is usually something good which can be said about the most feeble attempt if the child has done his best.

And remember that the teacher of young children must have a constantly growing appreciation of young childrens' art expression. Have you such an appreciation?

THE CONFERENCE PERIOD

Leader: Pauline Rutledge, Towson Normal, Baltimore.

At the first meeting of the Study Class on the Conference Period Miss Rutledge gave an outline of the work as planned. Miss Ella Ruth Boyce of Pittsburgh presented briefly the growth and development of such a period as part of a day's program; Miss Parrott of North Carolina and Miss Day of New York also assisted by concisely stating some of the problems involved. A short discussion of the various types of work period followed.

A Baltimore kindergarten teacher had made diary records of a conference period following a directed, a semi-directed, a free, and a center of interest work period and mimeographed sheets of these records were distributed. The first two chosen were of the discussions following the directed and the center of interest activities and these were hastily scanned and briefly discussed from the point of view of the kindergarten, first, second, third and fourth grades. These two records were chosen for the first study because of their definiteness and simplicity. The other two were distributed the second day. Both days suggestion was made that they be examined carefully and questions be presented if not immediately the following day.

The material indicated definitely the individuality of the children, their mental

age levels, social background and behavior reactions as well as the tact, insight and understanding of the teacher.

There were many questions and much discussion; about thirty of the group taking part. These concerned the whys and wherefores of procedure; such as the relation of kindergarten procedure to that of the succeeding grades, the length of time spent in class discussion, when it should occur, how it should be conducted, how frequently and for what purposes.

The last day a summary of questions gathered from kindergarten, and primary grade teachers was distributed and discussed together with questions from the floor. At this time sheets were distributed summarizing discussion periods in general and their relation to biological, psychological and sociological principles as well as to philosophy of education.

The first day thirty-five attended, the second day sixty and the third day seventy-five. Each day brought added interest and enthusiasm.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CURRICULUM FOR SOCIAL UNDERSTANDINGS

Leader: Laura Zirbes, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

This study group began at once to consider the fundamental issues involved in curriculum construction, with particular reference to those which are fraught with social significance. Although the size of the group was a temptation to proceed with a more formal lecture method, it was possible, due to the excellent spirit of active participation, to get vigorous responses to the specific questions which were discussed by small groups informally, and reported on by spokesmen.

There was general agreement on the undesirability of a fixed nation-wide curriculum; on the desirability of flexibility and local adaptation; on the importance of using the local, experiential as a point of departure and as a basis for intelligent comparison and further study; on the importance of avoiding sectionalism or provincialism which actually delimit social

understanding; on the desirability of agreement on those essential elements of social understanding which should form the foundation for maturing insight and responsibility in a changing social order.

In this connection, the criticism of haphazard choice of units of work, of dependence on the spectacular or occasional leads was supplemented by the constructive suggestion that constant human needs and universal child needs be drawn upon as material for developing a curriculum of social understandings on the primary level. This was emphasized as a sound way of building for breadth and insight. The necessity of approaching such materials through the child's actual immediate experience was also stressed, as was the importance of keeping learning integrated until various aspects of it emerged naturally for particular emphasis.

The undesirability of making the acquisition of techniques a prerequisite for their use was discussed at length. The development of intrinsic motives and drives to reading, writing, and other expressional arts was shown to depend on other functional development in active living.

The second session of the study group dealt more particularly with problems of curriculum sequence, classroom procedure, pupil guidance, provision for planning on the part of the children, ways and means of making the most of valuable use of resources in first-hand experiences and books. The participation was vigorous and constructive in this session.

On the third day, the previous discussions were summarized and the problem of evaluating learning in process and in outcomes was discussed. The necessity for keeping the development of social understandings in mind consistently throughout the work was stressed. The significance of evaluating the effects of the curriculum on child development was clarified. The desirability of types of record which might serve in evaluation of the curriculum and reveal the extent to which social understandings had been developed was also discussed.

Finally, the group was challenged to find some way of carrying the effects of its study during the convention into the field. Small groups discussed these possibilities with each other before the end of the session, and there were numerous evidences of the serious intent and purpose of those who were enrolled to do something constructive toward the development of the curriculum for social understandings in connection with their own professional responsibilities.

MEETING THE EMERGENCY CREATIVELY IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

Leader: Laura Zirbes, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

A group of approximately four hundred filled the conference room to overflowing. After making every possible provision for the comfort of those in attendance, the discussion was opened with the consideration of the major ways in which the emergency had affected or impinged on the primary school.

Each person present was asked to introduce himself to his neighbor and discuss this question informally. Subsequently several spokesmen reported to the group as a whole. It was evident from the responses that there was a general increase in the size of classes; reduction in the budget for equipment and supplies; reduction of the teachers' security, and uncertainty about salaries and tenure; an increase in responsibility for relief work; a definite indication that children were suffering from the effects of the depression in various ways; and a tendency to reduce the personnel available for teacher guidance, leadership, supervision, and special services.

With these specific problems in mind, the discussion turned to a consideration of appropriate ways of facing the emergency and attacking the problem constructively. The importance of setting up educational values on the basis of which emergency measures should be judged, was emphasized. The desirability of making necessary adjustments in the direction of desirable trends and transitions was pointed out. For

example, it is quite possible that some of our traditional expenditures are indeed extravagant. Instead of merely reducing the outlay, we could survey the values which specific materials serve, consider their suitability for the changing processes of primary education, and investigate new types of cheap materials which might be substituted.

Similarly, we could stop spending money for forty-eight books of a kind, and take definite steps toward the provision of more single copies and small groups of books, thus actually expanding the supply of reading materials, with a reduced expenditure for books. This would, of course, involve an adjustment of classroom procedures in the direction of providing for individual differences.

With reference to the size of classes, there was vigorous discussion of the necessity for dealing with young children individually instead of in the mass. Constructive suggestions for reducing the size of class without increasing the cost were hard to find, but ways of temporizing while the emergency makes it absolutely necessary were proposed. Among these, the most promising seemed to be the provision of a double shift program in which a number of children came early and another group stayed late, so that there might be at least part of the day in which the size of the group was reduced. In that event the activities during the middle of the day, in which both groups were present, would be those in which the size of the group would have the least undesirable effect.

With reference to the reduction of supervisory service and leadership it was proposed that teachers develop democratic plans for cooperative self-supervision, that they develop special individual abilities which would not only serve as a means of legitimate, creative release for them as persons, but would also enable them to undertake special phases of the school program with better understanding.

The conference closed with a challenge to face the emergency in the creative spirit of the pioneer, who worked with what he

had and sought to make life good; with the spirit of the poet, who out of trouble and sadness creates beauty; with the spirit of the Creator, who out of chaos created the universe.

EMERGENCY NURSERY SCHOOLS

Leader: Amy M. Hostler, Western Reserve University, Cleveland.

The implications of the emergency education program as a whole were presented by the state commissioner of education of Tennessee, Dr. Walter Cocking. He emphasized the point that the six education projects represent the first serious participation of the federal government in education.

A number of leaders in the Emergency Nursery Schools made reports. Miss Edna Dean Baker, representing the National Advisory Committee on Emergency Nursery Schools, brought out the fact that this Committee had not tried to suggest a definite plan that would be taken over by states, but, instead, recommended experimentation. This method had evidently resulted in growth and at present Miss Baker suggested that evaluating the program was the next important step. Dr. Harold Anderson, who was a regional representative of this Committee, told of the work which he and nine other people in the country did. Miss Christine Glass, of St. Louis, and Miss Norma Smith, of Montgomery, reported on the work of state assistants in this program. Miss Dorcas Willson reported on her method of procedure in planning and directing a local program of wide scope in Knoxville, Tennessee.

The types of training programs planned to meet varied needs were represented as follows: Professor Patty S. Hill, Teachers College, Columbia University, on the training in urban centers; Dr. Winifred Bain on the training program on rural sections in Virginia and the Carolinas.

In every case the reports showed the unique problems of various types which had to be met, and how the different organizations took care of these needs.

The leader of the group summarized the many types of problems met, and opened

the discussion on help given by other groups than elementary education. Miss Webster, of Grand Rapids, emphasized the need for various groups learning from each other and suggested that it might be wise for the National Advisory Committee to set up a definite plan for integrating the work of such groups as elementary education, home economics, relief organizations, etc. Miss Lemo Dennis, field worker for the American Association of Home Economics, made a fine contribution on the same theme. She stated that the Home Economics group were eager to cooperate in every way and condemned petty jealousies between groups.

The general tone of the whole meeting was one of enthusiasm and encouragement. A pessimistic tone, which might have risen from many obstacles in the establishment of this program, was not heard from anyone. At the close of the meeting, Miss Patty Hill spoke on what the whole program of Emergency Nursery Schools should mean to those who are particularly interested in the education of young children. She centered her discussion of the outlook for the future on the statement that, "Emergency Nursery Schools have really put the young child on the map."

RETAINING THE KINDERGARTENS

Leader: Stella Louise Wood, Miss Woods Kindergarten-Primary Training School, Minneapolis.

Mr. C. A. McCanless, Director, School Finance, Department of Education, Nashville, Tennessee, gave an able presentation of questions involved in the financial support of the kindergarten, tax reforms to insure funds for school needs, and experiments being tried in various states.

Grace Brown, Superintendent, Indianapolis Free Kindergarten Society, in presenting "Means of Interesting the Public in Kindergartens" made it clear that there were two groups to be won: the group inside the school, principals, grade teachers, boards of education; outside the school, parents, newspapers, men's clubs, citizens

in general. Means to be used include mother's meetings, radio talks, moving pictures of children at work, monthly bulletins sent to parents, "at home" days to show what the children are doing, window displays, speakers at club meetings, publicity in many forms to enlighten the public as to the actual results of this training.

Olga Adams, College of Education, University of Chicago, discussed "Progress within the Kindergarten Itself," and gave us conclusions drawn from examination of forty courses of study to determine the extent to which kindergarten and primary plans have been integrated. Some plans showed that the kindergarten was consciously providing experiences directly contributing to the development of reading readiness, while some primary plans showed recognition of the results of kindergarten training. A wider knowledge of the work of the other grades is imperative, also greater effort in making the value of the kindergarten contribution convincingly evident.

Lillian Poor, Director of Kindergartens, Boston, Ada Smith, Assistant Supervisor of Kindergartens, Milwaukee, and Edwina Fallis, Denver, continued the discussion, contributing valuable material relating to investigations to determine causes for first grade retardation, the relation of age level to reading readiness, the value of records and the collection of definite data in kindergarten, and home conditions in relation to behavior problems.

A letter from Lucy Wheelock, one of our valiant pioneers, urged more concerted effort. Helen Baldwin, Chairman of the State Public Relations-Legislative Committee of California sent a letter telling of many varied activities used to bring the kindergarten before the taxpayers. In a legislative contest last year it was necessary to choose between maintaining the validity of the Mandatory Law, and changing the age of entrance from four to five years. The Mandatory Law seemed most vital, so that was worked for, and retained. The entrance age is now five years.

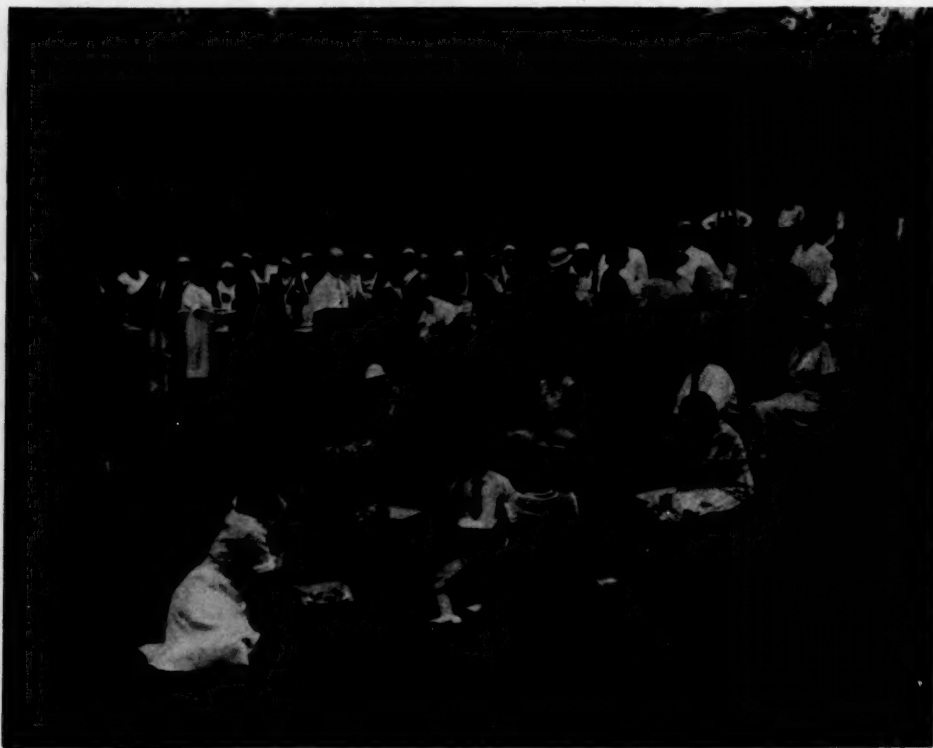
PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR THE NEW SOCIAL ORDER

Leader: Winifred Bain, New College, Columbia University, New York City.

The challenge of modern social conditions to those interested in preparing teachers was the theme of an enthusiastic meeting held Thursday morning, May 3. The discussion followed the outline of the annual report of the A.C.E. Committee on Teacher Training, and the meeting was presided over by Dr. Winifred E. Bain, the committee chairman. An attendance of some four hundred people made intimate discussion impossible, yet contributions from the floor indicated keen interest of the group in the presentations dealing with issues raised by the chairman, made by discussion leaders, Miss Lucy Gage, Dr. Zirbes, and Dr. Harold Anderson.

Dr. Bain cited, as a challenge to modern teachers, the new needs for public services to children, if the next generation is to be sound physically and mentally—needs created by national conditions of economic insecurity, poverty, actual want, unemployment, and conflicting ideals which have definite effects upon immature children. In spite of the fact that schools have been curtailed, the chairman declared that preparation of workers able to render new types of service should be carried forward so long as such needs exist. She cited the emergency education program of the past winter and new grants from private agencies as evidences of the recognition from the Federal Government and other sources of the importance of rendering service to American childhood.

Miss Gage urged that the preparation of



The convention culminated in an old-fashioned Southern Barbecue. Eight hundred and fifty guests enjoyed the setting, the colored fiddlers, the bandanaed helpers as well as the barbecue which had required eighteen hours of continual supervision.

teachers be centered about the realities of life which extend beyond the textbook, the library, and the campus, to the world of industry, business, and family life. Only as we prepare teachers to participate in real living will they be able to grow in power to render the necessary services, and only as we have growing teachers can we have growing children.

Dr. Zirbes emphasized the need for teachers to deal with problems of the adult world, and cautioned that they not content themselves with understandings on the child's level. Only by fearless, intelligent participation in world affairs can a teacher of the new social order understand and meet the needs of children of our next generation.

Dr. Anderson stressed the importance in our teachers colleges for giving definite help on ways of meeting responsibilities to parents and children. For illustration, he stated that if we could develop definite techniques for helping people to solve conflicts, much of economic and educational waste would be avoided. He cited the immense cost of crime in the United States, and the vast extent of maladjustments, behavior difficulties, and neuroses in our population, as evidence of need for decisive procedure in schools. Mental hygiene clinics in teachers colleges, he said, are typical of organized efforts which may be made for giving prospective teachers definite ways of working for the improvement of one important social condition.

The Program Discussions Related to the Convention Theme

JOHN E. STOUT, Dean of the School of Education, Northwestern University

The task assigned me is a very difficult one for two reasons—first it is not easy to select the main emphases and correctly represent the speakers because my time will not permit the presentation of the settings in which the statements were made; second, one cannot avoid, in a summary of this kind making interpretations of statements made and these interpretations may warp judgment. In other words, my own preconceived notions may unintentionally result in an interpretation which the speaker did not intend.

This seems to be a good alibi but it is weakened considerably when I relate to you that abstracts of the addresses were put into my hands by Miss Clara Belle Baker and her associates. These abstracts are very complete and the organization admirable. I have no doubt that I have correct and rather complete facts upon which to proceed if I have the good judgment to make proper use of the material.

The topic itself, however, is made up of so many factors that it is not easy to bring together the conclusions of the conference in a united fashion. On the one hand, one can not say that, since social orders are always changing, there are no new problems in education which present themselves at the present time. On the other hand it can not be said that these new problems are so unique that past experience in adjusting education to new conditions has little or no value in our attempts to serve the children in these difficult times. In view of these facts it may be fruitful to try to find the answer to the general question, "what are the conclusions of the conference," by attempting to make an analysis of the topic itself as this was revealed by the discussions and to use this material as a basis for final summary.

1. The main topic is "The Child in a Changing Social Order." The first point that I wish to make is that for the most part the discussions of the conference centered around the social order of the child and this it seems to me is a matter of great importance. Any attempt to deal with the social order in general could result only in superficiality in discussion and vagueness in conclusions. The social order of the child is greatly limited both in extent and complexity. The social order of the young child is made up chiefly of home and school and in only a limited degree includes the community. Homes and schools differ and so do communities. If we compare the social order of a child living in Evanston, Illinois, and that of a child living back of the yards in Chicago, we see at once that we are dealing with very different situations. Again, if we compare these social orders, so to speak, with that of children in smaller towns or in the open country, differences are again very obvious. The speakers in the convention have taken this into account. They have been very explicit and concrete in their facts and in their recommendations.

As the child grows older, home and school become relatively less important. His social order increases in extent and enormously so in complexity. This is another illustration which has brought out clearly the importance of defining social order in terms of the child or children whose welfare we are seeking.

The speakers in this convention have not ignored the impact of forces, political, economic, intellectual and social upon the children's social order. But they have dealt with the social order and shown how this impact gives rise to education problems which we are trying to face. It is my judgment that this point of view, namely of giving attention primarily to the social order of the child is fundamental to the welfare of children and ultimately to society as a whole. As citizens, we should participate actively and intelligently in improving the larger social order, the influence of which upon the child is tremendous. However, as parents and teachers it is our main job, if not our exclusive job, to be concerned with the child and not with a reformation of society in general.

2. The next thing to which we give consideration is the changing social order. Here again let us start with the child and examine the results of the forces responsible for the changes which are going on. That these results present difficult educational problems, there can be no doubt. Some results upon the school due to restricted budget must be dealt with. Changes going on in the social order are having profound effects upon the home and community life. These facts can not be ignored but the main fact is that our inescapable responsibility is to make the best possible use of the sources at our command, and that has been the emphasis of this convention.

A historical perspective may lend encouragement to us at this time. No one will deny for a moment that the present changing social order in which the child lives, presents very difficult problems to both teachers and parents. This is found both in the extent and kind of changes with which we have to deal. But it is not a little encouraging to know that a changing social order for children is not new. The two decades 1910-1930 witnessed profound changes of far-reaching importance. Since the social order of the child is constituted chiefly by the home and the school, one needs but to call to mind the changes which have taken place in both of these institutions to realize that the problem of adjustment to changes is not a new one.

This is not a plea in mitigation of damages as a lawyer would say, but rather to serve as encouragement in our present difficulties. What has been done during these years of rather successful work, throws considerable light upon procedure in the present crisis. We have mobilized our forces during the years as we are mobilizing them now and we shall succeed again as we have succeeded in the past.

3. One of the outstanding emphases of this convention has been upon necessary mobilization of forces. The various organizations represented here, some of which might not be regarded strictly as educational at all but which are effectively cooperating in the educational task, are making a united effort. Proposals for curriculum revisions reveal clearly that the leaders in this movement for child welfare are intimately conversant with the actual conditions and they are wholly untrammelled by traditional forces which might interfere with progress.

4. It seems appropriate to attempt to summarize briefly my interpretation of the spirit of this convention:

(1) The first thing that has impressed me is that a Defeatist Philosophy has had little or no place in the deliberations. Few there be, if any, who have made pilgrimages to the wailing walls of Jerusalem. You have not ignored the facts but you have refused to be frightened or disheartened by them. You have faced them courageously and hopefully.

(2) It has been my impression during this convention that there are some rather old things of supreme value in this new world of which we are so distressingly aware. In your minds children have possibilities which many deny. You have said with emphasis that I.Q.'s are not the sole arbiters of destiny. You have emphatically stated that ideas, ideals, attitudes and motives hold high place in your educational philosophy. You have declared your belief in the improbability of children through an improvement in their environment. You have repudiated the fatalistic and mechanistic views of life and have declared that spiritual forces are valuable in the achievement of spiritual values.

(3) You have born witness to the fact that the forces making for betterment in the living conditions of children are organized and are being given an unparalleled intelligent devotion and

(Continued on page 496)

Harriet M. Johnson: The Scientific Attitude in Education

BARBARA BIBER

Research Psychologist, Harriet Johnson Nursery School, New York City, New York

NURSERY school education of today, like many other modern activities, has not taken a solitary course. If it shows itself to be fundamentally distinct from what it was a generation ago, it owes thanks to those workers who have contributed what they gleaned from many allied fields. In the midst of this expanding movement we have been accustomed to see and hear of Harriet M. Johnson, founder of The Nursery School of The Bureau of Educational Experiments, as she worked with equal vigor toward method and understanding. Her work is done and if it is true, in any real sense, that great work lives on, it must be to the extent to which that work has been understood and evaluated by those who adopt its underlying principles.

The essence of Harriet Johnson's individual contribution is to be found in her way of working, in her persistent drive for accumulated factual data to precede even slight ventures into generalization. She entered the field of nursery school education at such an early stage in its history that not only methods but even problems were to be shaped. There are many ways of coming to a new field. Miss Johnson's way was the long plodding one, distrustful of quick results and ready answers. She worked naturally in a way fully in accord with scientific procedure,—full exploration of a problem, careful, planned accumulation of relevant data, analysis by methods most suitable to the material and general conclusions in the form of hypotheses to be checked and rechecked. That is why the organization with which she was affiliated is known for its voluminous collection of detailed observations, objectively recorded, of child behavior. She questioned the applicability of refined statistical methods to data of this kind for two reasons,—first,

because she suspected these methods of obscuring rather than clarifying the problem and second, because, knowing the data intimately as she did, she questioned the feasibility of using refined methods on material which could not be reduced to small objective units. In this general view she has been sustained in recent years. On the second score, her position has lately become a point of attack on the social sciences, as a group, when they have been criticised by statistical experts for wholesale adoption of methods from other sciences without sufficient forethought as to their applicability.

Only, perhaps, in direct contact with her way of working as it proceeded is it possible to realize what mental vigor is required from those who are genuinely in search of a fundamental body of data from which to build educational principle. She had her full measure of mental vigor. Her work had a quality of strength and soundness that resulted from the integration of breadth of conception with painstaking interest in every detail. Beyond that, in a more personal sense, there ran through every day of it, every phase of it, a quality of directness and simplicity that was compounded of many elements: earnestness, humor, devotion, scepticism, sympathy, playfulness and an unflagging concern for workmanship.

She believed that educators must set themselves, first and foremost, the stern task of knowing children. Aims must be tailored to the facts. The body of available information was all too meager, at every point, to satisfy what she considered necessary for intelligent planning. She wanted educators and teachers to know children as members of a social community and as individual biological organisms with an array of resources and an assortment of drives.

To know children is not enough. One must feel them, have or cultivate a constructive imaginative feeling that keeps one in key with all that comes to a child's eyes and ears and impinges on his growing understanding from the welter of man-made experience which surrounds him. Without this capacity a teacher can scarcely put aside her own adulthood long enough or well enough to insure for the children the breathing space they need. Without this kind of provision for child living, Harriet Johnson would not have felt a school was standing by its children.

For the individual child she had one goal: that he live his fullest, be his most effective self, conceiving effectiveness as much in its social as in its individual meanings. Bringing her unusual insight to bear on this fundamental problem, she made it clear to those who studied and worked with her what a delicately balanced whole an effective child is. She left no factor unconsidered: the variety of the child's resources, the interplay of temperament and capacity, the balance between the child's own impulses and the pressures brought to bear on him by his mother, older sister, family economic conditions. Is his source of deepest gratification the performance of skillful slides during roof play or the elaboration of social manoeuvres in his group contacts? Does he tend consistently to absorb or express? Is he resilient or sluggish in the rhythm of his behavior? Human material was important to her. Its waste was her deepest regret.

From this attitude toward education and feeling about children Harriet Johnson developed a technique of nursery school education that is outstanding for its flexibility so far as theory is concerned and its definiteness and precision with respect to current everyday procedures. She did not proceed from general principles. They were being moulded. She was suspicious of ready-made formulae or dogmatic tenets. She resisted automatizing behavior. And she resisted as much stereotyping thought about behavior. Where others were content to answer she spurred on to the next questions.

For these reasons it followed that the techniques she evolved in coöperation with her co-workers could never be read off as rules. They had to be acquired as attitudes and as attitudes had to be open to change, to influence by new information, by checks on old experience, by reconsiderations of all kinds.

The characteristic fluidity of her theoretical positions is expressed, in another way, in the policies she adopted for working usage. Her readiness and eagerness always to be on the learning side of life reflected itself in her preference for pliable teaching procedures. Her writings tell how deeply she was impressed with the value of human modifiability and how she wanted it preciously guarded in the children under her supervision.

To illustrate. She was never carried the whole way on the wave of emphasis on habit-training that became so prominent a few years ago. Accepting the necessity for regularizing a child's routine of eating, sleeping and elimination, she disagreed with the tendency to give these functions a too prominent place in the relations between children and adults. Beyond the range of these body functions she was concerned with tendencies, not habits, with readiness to respond, not correctness of response. In her own words, "It is equally, if not more important, is it not, that a child should learn to orient himself in new situations that present themselves, that he should have the impulse to attack them and the drive to carry him along to a constructive method of dealing with them. These qualities are not mechanisms that can be learned and relegated to the automatic. . . . Our justification is found in the attitude of the scientists, who are studying the biological foundations of behavior, that continual adjusting and readjusting are characteristic of the individual organism, and that in its history, plasticity is more important than a more stabilized form of behavior."

Specifically, in the matter of social relations, she considered it deplorable to precipitate a child into the adult world of accepted form and empty gesture. For the

child, manners should follow social feelings, not precede them. Nothing of lasting value to a child's integrity could be gained from parrot-like expressions of courtesy unsupported by essential feelings of good will. His tendency toward friendliness was of major importance. His habit of politeness might better wait. Surrounding the children with the mannerly behavior of supervising adults, she was willing to let the growth of their friendly feelings take the lead and find whatever outlets were natural at various stages of development. Here, as elsewhere in her work, the underlying thought was the same. Preserve what is genuine. Protect the impulses of each level of maturity and provide the opportunity for growing healthfully from one to the other.

The problems of expressive play, manipulative and dramatic, and its relation to the child's absorption of his own experience probably commanded the major block of her working time. She, in common with other educators, came to feel that a child's needs for creative play must be provided for carefully, and never overwhelmingly. The product of this play must be his product. Accordingly, static, finished materials were put aside and in their place were substituted raw materials, suitable to the child's fundamental drives towards experimentation and adaptable to his changing powers. The materials were required to be workable, malleable in response to the child's purposes, in short, plastic.

Much has been said and written in recent years in the educational field about freeing the child. At no time, was Harriet Johnson a proponent of superficial ideas of freedom for the child. To her there was no thinking of freedom in the abstract. With children, as with adults, she felt freedom has worth only in as much as there is power behind it. She felt it essential that we realize clearly that to educate is to educate towards a goal, that to teach is to influence in the direction of our preferences. She said "a literally 'free' environment and literally 'free' activities are impossible and undesirable. In fact, freedom in the sense of lack of direction would not be education. Our aim is to avoid dictation, to let the children learn by self-initiated experience and experimenting as long as it is within their control, and whenever possible to allow environmental conditions to furnish the corrective or stimulating impulse."

The field of education, or any branch of it, does not lend itself readily to the scientific method as we know it through the exact sciences. Measurement is difficult to standardize. Variables defy isolation. Human material makes poor controls. The fundamental of the scientific method, however, is applicable in any field of inquiry. Its requirements are painstaking work, inductive thinking, and checking of conclusions. For all these Harriet Johnson had a talent which she used unsparingly in the work she loved.

Harriet M. Johnson's friends, professional and personal, are extremely anxious to express in an appropriate form a tribute to her life and memory. They keenly recognize the widespread and deep loss that her death in March, 1934, has meant to educators and all others interested in the lives of young children.

Miss Johnson's explorations into the complexities of children's growth through constant research, and her practical applications of her findings in Nursery School work, have been one of the mainsprings of the Bureau of Educational Experiments since 1916. "Children in the Nursery School," a classic almost since the date of its publication, and many contributions to educational journals and conferences, have brought Miss Johnson's thinking to innumerable people beyond the horizon of her more intimate contact with the Bureau staff, the Nursery School children, research workers, teachers and student teachers.

Can the Nursery School, now to be called the Harriet Johnson Nursery School, continue as a genuine experiment and as an educational force without the invigoration and

direction of Harriet Johnson? We, the members of the committee for the Harriet M. Johnson Memorial Fund, believe that its integrity can and must be maintained.

Therefore, we have undertaken the task of assisting to finance the program through scholarships for the next two years. We know of no better tribute to Miss Johnson than to guarantee to the staff trained by her, an opportunity to carry on and develop the work to which she devoted her life. Our expectation is that her friends and admirers will wish to help toward the next two crucial years, and toward the indefinite continuation of the Harriet Johnson Nursery School.

Inquiries, pledges or contributions may be sent to the Committee for the Harriet M. Johnson Memorial Fund at 69 Bank Street, New York City.

COMMITTEE FOR THE HARRIET M. JOHNSON MEMORIAL FUND

Mrs. Rose Alschuler	Miss Freda Kirchwey
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Three Things

Three things filled this day for me,
 Three common things filled this day;
 Each had, for me, a word to say;
 Said it in beauty, and was done:
 Cows on a hillside all one way,
 A buttercup tilted seductively,
 And a lark arguing with the sun.

These three things, merely these three,
 Were enough to cry the world
 Out of my heart: the buttercup curled
 Where some gorgeous ruffian plundered;
 The skylark's dizzy flag unfurled;
 The placid cows pensively
 Wondered why they wondered.

JOSEPH AUSLANDER
 in *The Home Book of Modern Verse*.

NEWS FROM HEADQUARTERS

MARY E. LEEPER

NEWS OF THE ASSOCIATION

N.E.A. KINDERGARTEN-PRIMARY DEPARTMENT

The Kindergarten-Primary Department of the N.E.A. announces plans for two conferences during the Summer Meeting of the N.E.A. in Washington, June 30-July 6.

On Thursday July 3 there will be a Luncheon Conference at which Caroline Woodruff, State Normal School, Castleton, Vermont, will speak on "New Opportunities, Are They Ours?"

The Second Conference will be on Thursday afternoon, July 5th, when Dr. Julia Hahn, Supervising Principal of Washington, will speak on: "Contributions of the Lower Elementary Field to the Changing Social Order." This session will be followed by a business meeting of the Department.

Headquarters for the Department will be maintained at the Mayflower Hotel. Officers of the Department are:

President, Livia Peterson, Winnetka, Ill.

Vice-President, Norma Smith, Montgomery, Ala.

Secretary, Edith Alden Rose, Chicago, Ill.

Local Chairman, Catherine Watkins, Washington, D. C.

HEADQUARTERS INVITES YOU

The Staff of A.C.E. Headquarters is looking forward with pleasure to the meeting of the N.E.A. in Washington during the first week in July. We hope at that time to greet many friends and to make many new ones. Remember, A.C.E. Headquarters is on the third floor of the N.E.A. Building. We are expecting many of you to visit us.

You will also be most welcome at the A.C.E. Booth in the Commercial Exhibit Room. Use this Booth as a meeting place and as a place to leave messages for your friends. You will find a member of the A.C.E. Staff on duty there throughout the day.

SECOND A.C.E. BULLETIN

"Home and School Coöperation," the last A.C.E. Bulletin for this year has been sent to

all A.C.E. contributing members and to the Presidents and Secretaries of each Branch.

This Bulletin, edited by Alida Shinn of Mills College, California, reports actual situations in which coöperation between home and school was stimulated and successfully developed in public school systems, private progressive schools and in universities. You will find in this Bulletin suggestions adaptable to use in your own community. Order from the Association for Childhood Education, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C., Price 25¢.

SCIENCE PICTURES FOR PRIMARY GRADES

A number of talking pictures from the Erpi Natural Science films have been adapted for primary grade instruction. They are: "The Frog," "How Nature Protects Animals," "Animals of the Zoo," "Butterflies," "Moths," "Beetles," "Spiders," and "Seed Dispersal." Lectures, adapted to the primary grade level, are available. These lectures are a part of the accompanying teachers' handbook. They are to be read to the pupils by the classroom teacher as she screens the picture silently by means of either the sound or silent projector.

Suggestions for the utilization of the talking pictures in the various areas of natural science have been incorporated in handbooks for the primary teacher. A number of approaches to the unit of study are suggested in each handbook. Names of appropriate stories or books to be read to the primary grade pupils, as well as additional reference material for the teacher, are given. Issued by Erpi Picture Consultants, 250 West 57th Street, New York, New York.

MAY BRANCH EXCHANGE

The May number of the A.C.E. BRANCH EXCHANGE is a "Nashville Convention Special" and gives an informal report of some of the happenings in Nashville. Presidents and Secretaries of Branches have received this EXCHANGE.

If you were unable to attend the convention, perhaps you would be interested in this account

of the 1934 convention of our Association. With this in mind extra copies were printed. These may be secured by sending 25¢ to A.C.E. Headquarters, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C.

A NEW VENTURE

The A.C.E. Student Branch of the State Teachers College at Lock Haven, Pennsylvania, tried a new venture this year, a special number of the College Bulletin called the "Childhood Education Number." Students of the Kindergarten-Primary Department of the College wrote the articles, gathered the pictures, cut the blocks, edited the material, chose the style of the make-up, and, to a large degree, financed the publication. In the twenty pages of the Bulletin we find articles on "A Day in the Kindergarten," "Rhythm Related to Handwriting," and other equally interesting subjects. There is a carefully prepared bibliography on "Mental Health of Childhood," current news of the College and a brief history of the Lock Haven A.C.E. Branch. The Bulletin

is dignified and attractive in appearance, and presents material of value on the education of young children.

Other A.C.E. Student Branches, wishing to know more of the details of this undertaking, should direct their questions to: Miss Jessie Scott Himes, Director of Kindergarten Primary Education and Sponsor of the Lock Haven A.C.E. Branch.

YOUR 1935 VACATION

Is it hard to decide on plans for your vacation this summer? It will not be difficult in 1935.

The Association for Childhood Education will hold the 1935 Convention in Swampscott, Massachusetts, from June 27 through June 30. The convention meets in Swampscott at the invitation of the Kindergarten-Primary organizations of New England. Committees in every New England State have been at work for a year making plans for a delightful convention.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

LEGISLATION

Dr. John K. Norton, Chairman of the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education, calls attention to the fact that within the next twelve months, no less than 44 state legislatures will meet in regular session and several additional special sessions will convene. Now is the time to begin the preparation of a comprehensive and coördinated program of constructive legislation for these sessions. Now is the time to interview your representatives concerning their attitude toward public education.

IOWA CONFERENCE

On June 19, 20, 21, 1934, the eighth Iowa Conference on Child Development and Parent Education will be held in Iowa City, Iowa. The conference is sponsored by the Iowa State Council for Child Study and Parent Education with the coöperation of the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station and Extension Divisions of the State University of Iowa, Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, and Iowa State Teachers College.

The conference program will present some of the issues of the new educational deal. It is open to all persons interested in studying children.

No admission fee will be charged for any of the conference sessions.

Write for program to Child Welfare Research Station, Iowa University, Iowa City, Iowa.

SUMMER ROUND-UP

The Summer Round-Up of the Children was inaugurated by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers in 1925. It is intended to rouse parents to a sense of their responsibility and to bring the pressure of public opinion to bear upon the need of providing the school with as perfect material as possible. Many of the ills of later childhood and adult life have their beginning in the interval between infancy and school age. Thousands of children have defective vision, defective hearing, and other defects, many of which can be cured or relieved by early treatment.

The Summer Round-Up is not only an educational project; it is also a sound economic project because it prevents waste of educational effort with its attendant cost. Many children are repeaters because of some remediable defect, the correction of which might prevent this waste of time. Information on how to conduct the Summer Round-Up of the Children is available from the National Congress of

Parents and Teachers, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C.

SUMMER STUDY IN OTHER COUNTRIES

Many varied opportunities are open to teachers who wish to combine study with travel in other countries:

London Vacation Course: The thirteenth session of the City of London Vacation Course in Education (July 27th to August 10th) offers American teachers an enjoyable sojourn in the British capital, combining lectures on English teaching methods with visits to places of interest, meetings with distinguished men and women, and a program of entertainments. For booklet, address Mr. Hugh W. Ewing, M.A., Secretary, The City of London Vacation Course in Education, Montague House, Russell Square, London, W.C.1. England.

Psychological Institute in Vienna: The Psychological Institute of the University of Vienna will hold its third annual summer school in psychology for American students from July 9th

until August 9th, 1934. The courses, which are taught in English, include the following: Language and Personality, Childhood and Adolescence, Biographical Methods, Viennese Tests for Children, Experimental Psychology, Business and Social Psychology. The University of Kentucky, is again supervising these courses and will grant six semester-hours' university credit for the work done in Vienna. For details Dr. Henry Beaumont, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky.

Moscow University: The Institute of International Education, Inc., announces that summer school courses for English and American students and teachers will open at Moscow University on July 15th. The six weeks' course will include four weeks of resident study and two weeks of travel and field work. All instruction will be in English and full university credit will be possible. Information may be secured from: Institute of International Education, Inc., 2 West Forty-fifth Street, New York, New York.

The 1934-1935 Volume of Childhood Education

Next year the journal will release two special issues:

Health edited by Amy Hostler, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio

Arithmetic edited by Dr. W. A. Brownell, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina

In addition there will be three series of continued articles:

Five articles on *Science* by Bertha Stevens, Avery Coonley School, Downers Grove, Illinois

Four articles on the *Preparation for Reading* by Julia Letheld Hahn, Washington, D.C.

Three articles on *Comparisons of Nursery School, Kindergarten and First Grade* by Grace Langdon, Teachers College, Columbia University.

BOOK REVIEWS

Editor, ALICE TEMPLE

A timely publication.—In these days of economic distress, when the schools have suffered more drastic retrenchments than have other government services, it is a matter of greatest importance that the tax-paying public should become far more intelligent than it now is concerning the relation of education to general social welfare. Recognizing this fact the Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association has devoted its last yearbook¹ to the problems involved in educating the layman. The special purpose of the committee responsible for this yearbook was to make clear the teachers' function in interpreting the schools to the public, to give the information needed and to suggest the methods by which this information might be communicated. The result is a comprehensive and impressive body of material.

Part I, *What to Tell the Public about the Schools*, supplies the facts which the teachers need if they are to do their part in educating the public. It deals with education as a "basic industry," discussing its rôle in relation to production, consumption and distribution. It presents some important social trends and shows the school as a product of such trends. There is a chapter on financing the schools and one which describes the modern teacher.

In Part II, *How to Tell the Public about the Schools*, the possibilities of publicity through press, radio, the pupils in the schools, teachers professional organizations, and cooperating lay organizations are fully presented. The chapter which deals with what may be done through the children themselves, for example, discusses in stimulating and helpful fashion the utilization of school exhibits, demonstrations of school work, the observance of special days and weeks, contests, entertainments, extra-curricular activities, assemblies, school publications, pupil reports, commencement exercises and interest on the part of alumni. In the same thoroughgoing fashion are presented and evalu-

ated the other methods of making the public intelligent about the schools. Every chapter is followed by a list of selected references including books, pamphlets and magazine articles.

No teacher eager to participate in the effort to save the schools through educating the public can fail to find among the numerous practical suggestions in this book certain ones which he or she may act upon with success.

A new language series.—Workers in the elementary school have been eagerly waiting for a new series of English books which provide for purposeful English activities so organized that they call for planning, executing and evaluating. The older courses and texts attacked the English problem from a corrective viewpoint and were concerned with mastery of mechanics.

The "Daily Life Language Series"² written by well known leaders in the field of English present the following outstanding features:

1. Each chapter is organized around a central theme of social science concepts or daily experiences such as Animals, Plants and Trees, News of Other People, Happenings at Home, Our Daily Work.

2. Around each single theme unit a variety of functional, expressional activities are organized. Listening to poetry, conversation, dramatization, story-telling, floor talks, letter writing, informal discussion, introducing people are activities which recur in succeeding units and books.

3. A program for practicing, maintaining, and testing language skills is provided within each of the units mentioned above. This maintenance program provides for individualization.

4. In grades 4, 5, 6, there is great emphasis on reading to stimulate thought as a part of the English program.

5. Writing and spelling is emphasized as a part of the whole English program.

Teachers will at once detect the insufficient

¹ National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers. *Teacher and Public*. Eighth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1934. Pp. 240.

² R. L. Lyman, Roy I. Johnson, Frances Ross Dearborn, Mata V. Bear, Laura McGregor. *Daily Life Language Series*. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1934.

emphasis on dramatization and voice for all grades. In the schools of the future dramatization as a means of personality growth and adjustment will play a large rôle, larger than it is now playing.

The books continue to place too much emphasis on copying exercises and filling blanks.

Conversation receives attention but the suggestions are formal. There can be no real conversation which has to be forced out by questions. When children talk about topics in which they are all interested, conversation will flow freely.

Quality standards by means of which children can evaluate all their various language activities are lacking in many instances, scattered, insufficient, and receive little emphasis.

Training in building vivid sense pictures is replaced by stilted vocabulary exercises.

While practical people in the field will no doubt feel a bit disappointed that such a brilliant group of authors failed to revolutionize completely the English program, which must eventually be done if our children are to speak and write effectively, nevertheless this new series represents a decided step in the right direction and is a distinct contribution to the teaching of language.

ELEANOR M. JOHNSON
Lakewood, Ohio

What the youngest like in their picture books.—Assuming that the child's book, if it is to serve its purpose, must among other things attract and hold his attention, the authors of *The Child and His Picture Book*¹ conducted and in this volume describe "the first controlled investigation of the factors which make a picture book acceptable to the nursery child" (p. 19). Preliminary to the study a survey was made of 120 representative books composed of pictures only or of pictures with a minimum of text. These books were examined as to types of illustrating, picture subjects, and physical make-up. Among them the authors found very few which they regarded as entirely adapted to the interests of children of nursery school age.

After much experimentation they devised a technique by means of which they were able to secure the picture choices of 60 children between the ages of 2½ and 4½ years. These children were of the same socio-economic status

and had all been in nursery schools for at least five months; hence it was presumed that they had had a relatively common background of experience.

The investigation revealed many interesting items on the basis of which the authors make the following statement: "From the Child's standpoint the acceptable picture book should have many or all of these features.

Size—medium.

Arrangement—a number of separate pictures, each a story in itself; little or no text.

Subject matter—simple and somewhat familiar objects, creatures and actions, each with an obvious "story."

Illustrating—figures strongly outlined and given a simplified treatment; bright, crude, contrasting colors." (Pp. 72-73.)

The 120 books which were examined are listed in the appendix together with symbols which indicate the extent to which each approximates these standards. One chapter of the book gives excellent suggestions to parents and teachers concerning the use of picture books. Another devotes a paragraph to each of thirty-four leading illustrators of children's books.

Parents and nursery school teachers will find much that is interesting and helpful in this book. The study reported, however, should be followed by others in which children of different social status and experience are the subjects and in which the age range is narrower. It would seem that there must be some marked differences between the preferences of children 2½ to 3½ and those 3½ to 4½ years of age.

When their study was completed the authors turned their attention to the making of a book in line with the features discovered as essential to the book which would be entirely pleasing to a nursery school child. The result is *The Child's First Picture Book*.² Professor Patty S. Hill, who has written the Introduction, says of this little volume. "We adults may not be pleased with it but the toddlers are." Whether a wider audience of children like it remains to be seen. One group of four-year-olds has shown little interest. Indeed they failed entirely to recognize the animals in one of the pictures which are supposed to be dogs. Instead they called them bears. Many in this group were unable to interpret another of the pictures which was drawn to represent a boy shoveling snow.

¹ G. LaVerne Freeman and Ruth Sunderlin Freeman. *The Child and His Picture Book*. Chicago: Northwestern University Press, 1933. Pp. 102.

² G. LaVerne Freeman and Ruth Sunderlin Freeman. *The Child's First Picture Book*. Chicago: Northwestern University Press, 1933. Unpagged.

Several adults to whom the book was shown had the same difficulty in reading these two pictures. Yet one of the standards set by the makers of this book is that pictures for the nursery school child should require no text. They should tell their own stories.

It is difficult to be as enthusiastic about this book as one who has read the story of its origin and development would like to be. Surely a far more attractive series of pictures might have been produced which would conform equally well to the criteria established by means of the investigation.

ALICE TEMPLE

More "experience" poems.—After an interval of some years Mrs. Aldis has given us another little book¹ of delightful poems—some forty-six in all. As in her earlier volumes, some of the poems are interpretations of children's everyday experiences. Others while written about children, seem to express the adult's attitude toward their acts or moods.

The book opens with a group of five poems which cannot fail to charm children who have had recent experience at the circus. Here is one.

BARE-BACK RIDER

There isn't a prettier sight, I think,
Than a pony that's white and a lady that's pink:
The pony so frisky and stepping so high,
The lady so smiling as they go by,
The lady so tip-toe on her toes,
The pony, his bridle dressed up with a rose,
The lady and pony both liking to be
Riding around for the world to see.

Older children will enjoy this lovely bit.

NAMES

Larkspur and Hollyhock,
Pink Rose and purple Stock,
Lovely smelling Mignonette,
Lilies not quite opened yet,
Phlox the favorite of bees,
Bleeding Heart and Peonies—
Just their names are nice to say
Softly,
On a summer's day.

¹ Dorothy Aldis. *Hop, Skip, and Jump*. New York: Minton Balch and Company, 1934. Pp. XII + 95. \$2.00.

But only the grown-up who has been through it can fully appreciate this picture.

A DREADFUL SIGHT

We saw him so naughty and scratching and hitting
And when he sat down, then he wouldn't stop sitting,
Right on the sidewalk with everyone staring
But he didn't care—oh he LIKED it not caring!

On the page opposite each poem is an attractive drawing, the work of Margaret Freeman. These illustrations add much to the charm of the book.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED PRIMARILY FOR TEACHERS

BAILEY, CAROLYN S. Editor.

The Story-Telling Hour. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1934. Pp. X + 252.

MAPES, CHARLOTTE AND HARAP, HENRY.

Six Activity Units in Fractions. Cleveland, Ohio: Curriculum Laboratory, School of Education, Western Reserve University, 1933. Pp. 19. \$0.15.

WALLACE, HENRY A.

America Must Choose. World Affairs Pamphlets. No. 3. New York: Foreign Policy Association, and Boston: World Peace Foundation, 1934. Pp. 33. \$0.25.

ZESBAUGH, HELEN ANN.

Children's Drawings of the Human Figure. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1934. Pp. xi + 75. \$1.25.

PRIMARILY FOR CHILDREN

BUCKINGHAM, B. R.

The Children's Book Shelf. A series of readers including a pre-primer, a primer and a book for each of the six elementary grades. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1934.

MITCHELL, LUCY SPRAGUE.

Young Geographers. The Coöperating School Pamphlets. No. 5. New York: The John Day Company, 1934.

TOWSE, ANNA B., GRAY, WILLIAM S., AND MATTHEWS, FLORENCE E.

Health Stories: Book Two. Curriculum Foundation Series. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1934. Pp. 176.

This it is to be wise, when you can bend your mind in whatever direction circumstances may require.—TERENCE.

AMONG THE MAGAZINES

Editor, ELLA RUTH BOYCE

Child Development in its quarterly issue of March prints an interesting article by Florence L. Goodenough on "An Early Intelligence Test". This is a report of a series of developmental standards for judging the mental development of infants during the first three years which was worked out by Dr. Stanford E. Chaillie of Tulane University as early as 1887. Because his account of his work was published in a medical journal of limited circulation, it has been unknown and to the Kuhlman 1922 revision of the Binet tests has gone the credit for pioneer work in this field. Dr. Chaillie's own article is quoted as follows to show his recognition of the need for such a scale, "Many, misled by love and vanity, attribute superior merit to their own offspring; some few, timid, and inexperienced, are distressed by idle fears of deficiencies; so that, on the whole, few parents estimate aright the progress which the ordinary, average baby, especially if it is their first one, ought to make. . . . Teachers greatly need more accurate knowledge of the mental and moral faculties of the average child at different ages. To what extent are these various faculties developed, what peculiarities and what deficiencies characterize different ages?" Data for his work seems to have been secured from literature and from his own observations as a physician. The writer tells us, "It is noteworthy that many of the individual items correspond fairly closely to those found in the developmental schedules or mental tests for infants published during the past few years." Some quotations from his work are given and some comparisons made. In summary Dr. Goodenough says of Dr. Chaillie's article that it "is believed to be the earliest published example of an attempt to compile a series of normative standards based upon the age at which various abilities develop in the average child for use in estimating the mental level of individuals." Being somewhat in advance of its time it has failed to receive the credit due it and instead Binet, coming later, has been given entire credit for "the device, destined to revolutionize the entire theory and practice of mental testing." She quotes Terman to the effect that this device "ranks,

perhaps, from the practical point of view, as the most important in all the history of psychology." In a biographical note on Dr. Chaillie, it is interesting to find this comment, "His interest in the functional aspects of child development was probably stimulated in connection with the popular lectures which he was accustomed to deliver to parents and teachers." It would seem that the recent activity in parent education is not so modern as has been thought. Ten references are given, helpful for study in this field.

In the same journal Winifred Bain writes on "A Study of the Attitudes of Teachers Toward Behavior Problems." This presents "an analysis of Teachers' attitudes toward behavior problems at intervals five years apart in a decade rife with concern about child development and welfare." The classes were from Teachers College, Columbia University, the scale used that devised by E. K. Wickman and reported in *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*. The method is given in detail. The summary in part says, "What this study shows, albeit incompletely, is the struggle toward new viewpoints in education, a shift in which there are still conflicting attitudes and no settled conviction. Greater basic understanding is still needed. Translated into practice many false interpretations are clear. Some teachers are so concerned about making children happy that they spoil them. Sometimes there is such an attempt to give children freedom that it sweeps beyond all bounds and results in license. Again the rights of the individual are so stressed that the good of the group is overlooked. Reactionary outbursts against authority may assume less importance when judged objectively in the light of consequences to the growth of the child than they did when evaluated against the comfort, traditions, and sensitivities of the teacher, yet it may well be regarded as a serious matter for children habitually to resort to behavior of an anti-social though expressive character."

The Elementary School Journal for March contains an article on "The Nature and Development of Concepts of Time among Young

Children" by M. Lucile Harrison of the Colorado State Teachers College. The author points out the need the child has to master the vocabulary of time and to adjust himself to schedules. At first his time adjustments are made for him but gradually he acquires the knowledge and the ability to adjust himself. She quotes Oakden and Sturt as having concluded "that concepts of time are mature at the age of thirteen or fourteen and that from then on individuals should find no difficulty in adjusting themselves to a time-regulated society." The article shows the gradual development of the young child. One comment it makes is a significant suggestion. "As teachers, we must help children to feel the importance of time-telling as a valuable asset in modern social life, and we must also carefully take into account how we may help them to achieve matured concepts of time through language development and the development of number concept. In our use of terms relating to time we must ourselves be accurate and precise in order that confusion will not result in children's minds. The term 'minute' for example, might be more clearly understood by the small child if we did not often say, 'Wait a minute,' and then require him to wait a half-hour."

In the same journal Henry Harap of Western Reserve University and Charlotte E. Mapes of the Cleveland schools write on "The Learning of Fundamentals in an Activity Arithmetic Program." This is a report of a fifth grade study and the details of the study are given. The summary makes these conclusions. "1. In an arithmetic activity program based on real situations in school and social life, the pupils mastered 14.2 of the 17 fundamental processes, —an equivalent of 85 per cent of the processes. 2. The average intelligent quotient was a very minor factor. 3. The pupils learned 79.5 per cent of the basic steps in the half-grade. 4. The fact that the arithmetical steps appeared in random order did not hinder the learning process. 5. The number of times which a step was repeated had nothing to do with the degree to which it was mastered. 6. Finally, at least under the conditions of good teaching, an arithmetic activity program based on real situations in school and social life incorporating the basic arithmetical steps of a grade may be undertaken with considerable assurance that these steps will be mastered." Thus this study is a valuable contribution to the unending discussion on this point.

This same journal prints a list of 139 items, "Selected References On Pre-school and Parental Education," compiled by Florence L. Goodenough with the assistance of Louise Gates. A note explains that this list includes some of the more important publications that appeared during the period from December 1, 1932 to December 1, 1933. It is therefore invaluable material for workers in this field.

In *Teachers College Record* for March, there is an article by N. L. Englehart on "The Function of the School Building in the Community." Beginning with a quotation from an article on School Houses which won a prize in 1831, he says, "The contrast between ideals and actual conditions which the author expressed are relatively as great today as they were at that period." The article continues with a discussion of the whole problem under the headings City Planning and the Schoolhouse; the School Building and the Social Subjects; and The Future of the Schoolhouse, ending with this hope—"From each schoolhouse should radiate paths of activity which invite the student to participation in and consideration of real life activities, and along which the adults travel into the schoolhouse again for reconsideration of basic life concepts and for the reformulation of new community policies."

In the same journal Fred Charles, Chief Editorial Writer, *Buffalo Times*, writes on "A Journalist Looks at Education." He makes some statements which school people are glad to have repeated in a new and striking way. For example—"A peculiarity of the human species is that it will accept the latest mechanical device without question but will resist, often to the death, a new or unfamiliar religious, political, or philosophical concept." "What I am trying to say, perhaps inadequately, is that while we find the airplane none too fast for our physical natures, our mental life is content to jog along in the same old stagecoach." His definition of education is that it is "the attempt to condition the child for citizenship by means of the environment," and of success along these lines, he says, "It is true, I think that in this experimental business of conditioning the future citizen, we have not made a great deal of progress. Though it seems safe to say that we have made more progress in the last twenty years than in the previous two thousand." While feeling that the schools should now be exempt from economies, and

recognizing that the tax burden needs to be redistributed, he is strongly of the opinion that America can afford to pay for the education of its children. He concludes, "America has enough, or can create enough wealth. The only argument is over what we are going to use that wealth for. We can spend it for champagne, or moving pictures, or chewing gum, or beef-steaks, or schools. Maybe we can spend it for all of these things at once. But if we must choose, I cast my vote for the life of the spirit instead of for chewing gum; for schools rather than for champagne."

Educational Method for March has as its first article "Supervision Does Pay!" by Helen R. Messenger of the Northern Illinois State Teachers College. Calling attention to the fact that "Supervision has borne the brunt of school retrenchments" the author suggests that supervisory officials should be doing more than they have been to defend their work. The article describes an attempt to show by figures the results of supervision. The study is described as it was made with graphs to show its findings, which were with supervision "The school as a whole was raised a half year in achievement. This amounts on the average to giving each child one half year more schooling than he would otherwise have had."

In *The Nation's Schools* for April, Grace Abbott of the Children's Bureau writes on "Child Health Needs Close Watching during These Times." She tells us that studies show high rates of malnutrition among children and calls on teachers to help solve the problem this creates. She advocates a school lunch as the simplest way to meet it, stresses the need for regular physical examinations, and urges that teachers be on the lookout for signs of physical deterioration, such as listlessness, loss of weight and loss of interest in school work. She says, "It is not necessary to remind educators that insecurity, anxiety, and unhappiness, as well as inadequate food, are the enemies of normal growth and development, particularly in adolescent children." She speaks of the service teachers have given in spite of their own lowered salaries and insecurities. She then goes on to point out how unprepared was America for the depression and concludes, "We shall have to continue emergency makeshifts again this year, but we should make the experience of these last years the basis of a program which will in the future maintain minimum educa-

tional, health, and social standards for all children in the United States."

Progressive Education continues in its March issue the discussion of educational leadership with which it is at present so occupied. Norman Woelfel's title suggests his opinion—"Our Costive Educational Leadership." He quotes Dr. Zook and Dean Russell to the effect that the present situation calls for something "dramatic and spectacular" on the part of the teaching profession. But he is not so confident of such action's appearing. He says, "A million teachers, who collectively might constitute a powerful minority force in the life of the nation, have taken the blows of the economic depression with scarcely more comeback than occasional sporadic cries of anguish." And again "Leaders in the profession have not habitually accustomed themselves to making sacrifices for the sake of important objectives. Their forte has been rather making useful contacts, accomplishing insignificant tasks with high efficiency." He suggests as a plan for the future that "To be dramatically effective, after educators have gone to the roots of things in their mutualized investigation and reflection, they form their defensive lines under the banner of basic convictions, ally themselves with all other social groups of similar orientation among the people, and fight heroically against whatever forces elect to lay down the gauge of battle."

Hilda Taba writes on "Progressive Education—What Now?" She feels that "progressive education faces a peculiar dilemma: It cannot sincerely educate the individual to fit the present cultural pattern, because progressive education's values are too acutely in conflict with those operating in present-day society; and yet it lacks a sufficiently comprehensive point of reference regarding a desirable scheme of human relations." She suggests the beginning of the way out of this dilemma thus—"The nature of the task before progressive schools today calls for a more efficient mechanism for cooperative effort than has been in practice until now."

Writing on "Social Studies in the Nursery School," Irma Simonton describes the democratic life of the group. She makes one statement derived from this experience which is so significant that it would be well for every individual to consider its implications. "Personally I question whether genuine tolerance can ever be

acquired except by making one's own life rich enough so that it is not necessary to annoy other people in order to attain satisfaction. This seems to be true at three; it may be true at forty-three."

Child Welfare for April has an interesting discussion on school marks. Paul L. Essert writes on "Your Child and His School Marks." He tells of one child who starting out with keen interest in her own growth grew to be interested only in her comparative rating as shown by marks. Her mother expresses the problem thus, "Is there any way I can keep up the joy and pride that my daughter has in self-evaluation and interest in growth, even though the school is saturating her with competitive mediocrity?" The author discusses the problem thus raised from many different angles, realizing that it calls for united effort of the home and school. There follows a statement of what is being done in Winnetka, Illinois, and Newton, Massachusetts, towards the solution of this problem.

Child Study for April is devoted to "The Family and Its Functions Today." This is really a summary of the high spots of the Forty-fifth Anniversary Conference of the Child Study Association held in New York in January. It is therefore material of great worth for parents and teachers. The topics are Social Change—A Challenge To Parents; Highlights On Social Backgrounds; The Family on The Firing Line; Moralities—What Are They?—; and The Dilemma of The Liberal Parent. The editorial writer tells us that some thirty specialists participated in the preliminary discussions, chosen from in the fields of sociology, education, psychology, psychiatry, religious education, social work, economics, and parent education. The final conferences lasted a day and a half and were productive of much interesting discussion and disagreement. The purpose is

thus described—"to outline first, the changes that are now happening; and second, what these changes are doing to the inter-relationships of the family members."

The address by Rabbi Abba Hillel Silver at the banquet of the Department of Superintendence in Cleveland was so much appreciated that teachers will be glad to know it is printed in full in the April issue of the *Journal of the N.E.A.*

School and Home for March deals with Education and Social Change with Frederick L. Redefor, Herman H. Horne, John I. Childs, I. L. Kandel, Eduard C. Lindeman, J. Carleton Bell and V. T. Thayer treating of its different aspects. Mr. Lindeman has an amusing title—"Three Verbs in Search of a Meaning: To Teach—To Guide—To Indoctrinate." He says that with educators acute timidity has been an occupational disease, and that those "who wish to be freed from the stifling barriers of timidity" can help themselves "by reexamining the teaching function." This his article proceeds to do, discussing the "teaching function as a set of responsibilities." He believes that "goals, critical freedom, and teacher control of educational policy represent a program which would open channels for revitalizing education."

The *Pittsburgh Schools Bulletin*, published bi-monthly under the direction of the Department of Curriculum Research devotes its January-February issue to an analysis of the activities of the kindergarten. Under eleven different classifications it gives a complete picture of the aims of everything that is done in the kindergarten and the expected outcomes. Planned and organized by Mr. Charles E. Manwiller of the department of curriculum, the details were carried out by a committee representing the kindergarten department.



(continued from page 482)

courage. More than 1200 of you have answered roll call here and you represent several thousands of others who have joined with you in the most significant effort ever made in America to promote the welfare of children. You have declared that the whole child must be taken into account and bear witness that the belief in the unity of child life is resulting in unity of effort on the part of all agencies which may contribute to his welfare.

(4) You have declared your faith in the future. You have said that you have not lost courage and that you have not mistaken a babble of noises for a pronouncement of doom. The influence of this convention upon this city and its environs is perfectly obvious; and you will carry back to your tasks as you go to your several, and in many cases far distant ways, renewed hope and courage for the battle that lies ahead.

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RESEARCH ABSTRACTS

Editor, ELIZABETH MOORE MANWELL

Shall the Left-Handed Child Be Transferred?
At West Virginia Wesleyan College Dr. C. E. Lauterbach has been making a study¹ of the desirability or the dangers of transferring left-handed children.

As Dr. Lauterbach points out, heretofore the positions taken by those interested in the subject have usually been extreme positions—either that all left-handed children should be transferred or that none should be transferred. Such an extreme attitude overlooks the facts of individual differences, and ignores the fact that the degrees of handedness are many, ranging from dominant left-handedness to the ability to use both hands equally well to dominant right-handedness.

The first question raised in this study concerned itself with whether individuals find it inconvenient to be left-handed. When 160 left-handed individuals were asked "Does the fact that you are left-handed ever inconvenience you or cause you embarrassment? the responses were:

No	77 (frequency)
Yes	61
Very little	3
Not yet	2
Too young to answer	8
No report	9

It is to be noted however that among those who replied that left-handedness was not an inconvenience quite a number had learned to perform certain acts with the left hand, a tacit admission of handicap.

The next question taken up centered on the effect upon skill in penmanship of being transferred from the left to the right hand. Nine hundred forty specimens of penmanship were studied, each one scaled with the "Kansas City Scale for Measuring Handwriting." The papers were also divided into four groups indicating (1) those who had successfully transferred in penmanship from the left to the right hand; (2) those who attempted transfer but failed; (3) those who had always written with the left

hand and had never attempted transfer; and (4) those who had always written with the right hand. The number in each of these groups was 603, 163, 146, and 128 respectively. It was found that the best penmen were the natural right-hand writers. The next best writers were those who had successfully transferred from the use of the left to the right hand in writing. The next in order of proficiency in handwriting were those who had attempted transfer but failed, and the poorest writers were those who had always written with the left hand and never attempted changing. The standard Index for scaling the penmanship (found by multiplying Quality by Rate) was

854 for Group 4
714 for Group 1
669 for Group 2
578 for Group 3

The author next approached the problem of whether success in transferring depends upon the degree of left-handedness which an individual has. He therefore analysed the writing habits of 1051 individuals. This was done by obtaining a "handedness index," where in an Index of 0 represents complete left-handedness, an Index of 50 represents ambidexterity, and an index of 100 represents complete right-handedness. He found that a child with a Handedness Index (HI) of 0-4 cannot be successfully transferred. A child with an HI of 5-9 has chances of ten to three against successful transfer. In the case of a child with an HI of 10-14 chances are fifty-fifty. In the case of HI's of 45 or over the chances are decidedly in favor of successful transfer.

The author then studied the methods used to train children to transfer to using the right hand. The cases of 356 individuals were studied. It was found that in 27 per cent of the cases punishment had been used as a corrective.

Analysis was then made of 37 cases of speech disorder in a total of 1061 cases of handedness. Punishment was used in 50 per cent of the cases. The median HI of this group of 37 cases was 28. Seventy-six per cent of these cases had HI's of less than 50, and 46 per cent had HI's

¹ Lauterbach, C. E. "Shall the Left-Handed Child be Transferred?" In *Ped. Sem. and J. Genetic Psychol.* Vol. 43, No. 2, Dec. 1933, pp. 454-462.

of less than 25. "These two tables seem to indicate that the majority of speech disorders are correlated with low HI's. . . . As indicated above . . . in 50 per cent of the speech-disorder cases involving transfer, punishment was used as a corrective. The effect of these punishments cannot be appreciated by anyone who has never heard the wail of the unsuccessful transfer. . . . *It is not the transfer per se which causes stuttering but the methods imposed upon a particular type of personality. Any other finely co-ordinated activity forced by similar methods would bring about the same unfortunate result.*" (Italics are the author's.)

The author then reports the practice curve's of four left-handed High-School students who voluntarily undertook to learn to write with the right hand. The results indicated that with a compelling motive transfer is much more easily accomplished.

Finally the conclusion may be quoted. "The answer to the title to this article probably is that (the child can be transferred).

"1. If the Handedness Index is not too low, say 25 or better;

"2. If the child is self-confident, bold, aggressive (not timid, fearful, nervous);

"3. If coercive methods are avoided and intelligent, informed supervision is provided;

"4. If a strong, sustaining motive can be developed, transfer can be undertaken to the advantage of the child with a reasonable expectation of success. If one or more of these factors are lacking, transfer should be undertaken with caution."

What Differences Between Problem and Non-Problem Children Can Be Measured? An investigation is reported² which will interest those who, as the author suggests, are eager to re-evaluate continuously school procedures in terms of child guidance—in terms of the contribution that the school can make to the wholesome personality growth of school children.

All the teachers in a school system of 6735 pupils were asked to record all their pupils whom they considered behavior problems, and

² Fisher, Mildred L. "Measured Differences Between Problem and Non-Problem Children in a Public-School System." In *J. of Educational Sociology*, Vol. 7, No. 6, Feb. 1924, pp. 353-364.

to underline the ones they considered the most serious problems. They were also asked to name their best adjusted pupils. All the children not named as problems were considered non-problem children. This non-problem group was then subjected to a random sampling, in order to make up a non-problem group equal in numbers to the problem group, as a basis for experimental investigation.

The mental, physical, social, and emotional phases of each child's development were investigated for both the problem and the non-problem groups. The school records for achievement-test rankings were used, as well as such tests as the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedules, the Rogers Physical Capacity Tests, the Burgess-Cavan Tests of Home Background, the Sims Socio-Economic Tests, and the Thurstone Psycho-Neurotic Inventory. A rating sheet of social and emotional tendencies filed in the Kindergarten years by Kindergarten teachers for the pupils in the experimental groups of the Kindergarten and grades I, II, and III offered the most unusual and interesting data.

Space does not permit the report here of all the results of these analyses. It must suffice to indicate the author's final interpretation. "Regardless of the number of years ago the Kindergarten ratings had been made, the groups named as problems by their present grade teachers had been rated by their Kindergarten teachers as less dependable, less thoughtful, less generous, less sensitive, less affectionate, more quarrelsome, more dreamy, more stubborn, more given to tantrums, more excitable, more colorless than the non-problem children. So great were the differences . . . that statistical treatment indicated reliability of the differences in each separate grade."

"That the social and emotional traits apparent at Kindergarten age tend to persist is not simply a psychiatrist's theory, but a demonstrated finding of this study." Public school experiences and training needs to be organized to provide the best possible growing conditions, in order that "each individual child may be helped to make the most of himself through the activities of a child-guidance program sensitive to the challenge of research findings."

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Sarah Marble Heads Work

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